

WESTMINSTER ABBEY.

**Planned and mainly built in Thirteenth Century: the
West Towers belong to Seventeenth Century.**

LONGMANS' HISTORICAL SERIES FOR SCHOOLS

Book II

A HISTORY OF
GREAT BRITAIN

FROM
THE EARLIEST TIMES TO 1919

With 150 Illustrations and 87 Maps and Plans

By T. F. TOUT, M.A., D.LITT.

HON. PROFESSOR OF HISTORY AND FORMERLY DIRECTOR OF ADVANCED
STUDY IN HISTORY IN THE UNIVERSITY OF MANCHESTER
FELLOW OF THE BRITISH ACADEMY

NEW IMPRESSION (1922)

REISSUE

LONGMANS, GREEN AND CO. LTD.
89 PATERNOSTER ROW, LONDON, E.C.4
NEW YORK, TORONTO
BOMBAY, CALCUTTA AND MADRAS
1927

All rights reserved

P R E F A C E

THIS new Historical Series for Schools consists of three books, based upon the 'concentric system,' which are worked out on much the same lines as are the corresponding three volumes of Longmans' Geographical Series.

The first book, which was published in 1903, aims at exciting a general interest in British History in the minds of boys and girls in the junior forms at schools.

This second book, first published in 1902, aims at traversing the same ground with greater thoroughness, a more specific attempt at consecutive narrative, and with more abundant detail. It aspires to tell the story of our country with sufficient particularity to suit the needs of middle forms in schools.

The illustrations and maps have been carefully chosen with the view of directly illustrating the facts detailed in the narrative. A full analysis of the contents is given, which may serve as a rough summary, and the index has been compiled on as comprehensive a basis as possible.

The third book, published in 1906, goes further into detail, though following on most essential points the methods adopted in the present volume. It is framed with regard to the practical wants of the higher forms of schools, and it is hoped that it contains such

information as is usually required from candidates for the better class of school-leaving examinations.

The writer is conscious that some apology is needed for adding to the number of text-books on English History. He is not, however, aware of any series written on the present plan, and has been encouraged to carry out his task by the advice and assistance of many ladies and gentlemen actively engaged in school work. He would like particularly to mention his debt to Mr. J. W. Allen, alike in framing the general scheme of the series, in determining the standards to be aimed at, and in the choice and preparation of illustrations and maps.

THE UNIVERSITY, MANCHESTER.

PREFACE TO NEW EDITION (1920)

The present edition has been carefully revised and corrected. New chapters have been added dealing with the reigns of Edward VII. and George V. down to the conclusion of the Great War. The description and plan of the battle of Bannockburn have been recast in accordance with the views of Mr. W. M. Mackenzie and Dr. J. E. Morris. The plan of the battle of Trafalgar has been redrawn in the light of the Report of the Admiralty Committee of 1913.

THE UNIVERSITY, MANCHESTER,
24 January, 1920.

CONTENTS

	PAGE
PREFACE	v
LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS	xxiii
LIST OF MAPS AND PLANS	xxvii
LIST OF GENEALOGICAL TABLES	xxviii
TABLE OF KINGS AND QUEENS	xxix
LIST OF THE CHIEF MINISTRIES SINCE 1702	xxxii

BOOK I.

DATE		
Up to 1066.	BRITAIN BEFORE THE NORMAN CONQUEST	1-55
Up to 449.	Chapter I. Britain before the English Conquest	1-13
	Cave Men	1-2
	The Iberians	3
	The Celts	4-5
	The Romans	5
	Julius Cæsar and the Roman Empire	5-6
B.C. 55-54.	Cæsar's Invasions of Britain	6-7
A.D. 43-85.	The Roman Conquest of Britain	8-9
85-410.	Roman Rule in South Britain	9-10
	Roman Britain and Ireland become Christian	10
410.	The End of the Roman Power in Britain	10-12
410-449.	The Scots and the English Invaders	12-13
	The beginnings of England, Scotland, and Wales	13
449-668	Chapter II. How the English came to Britain, and how they became Christians	14-23
	Who were the English?	14-16
449-600.	The English Conquest of South Britain	16
	The English Kingdoms	16
	The Welsh Kingdoms	16-17

DATE		PAGE
	The Picts and the Scots	17
	Results of the English Conquest	17-19
	The First English Overlords	19
	Pope Gregory the Great	19-20
597.	The Landing of St. Augustine	20-21
627.	The Conversion of Edwin	21
	The Struggle between Christianity and the old Religion	21-22
668.	The Work of Theodore of Tarsus	22
	The Monks and their Work	22-23
626-899.	Chapter III. How the West Saxon Kings became Lords of all Britain, and how the Danes settled in the land	24-34
	How the British Islands became a single State	24-25
626-685.	The Northumbrian Overlordship	25
716-821.	The Mercian Overlordship	25-27
825-871.	The West-Saxon Overlordship	27
	The Coming of the Danes	27-28
871.	Alfred and the Danes	28
878-886.	Alfred's Treaties with Guthrum	28-29
	The Dano law and Alfred's Kingdom	29-31
878-899.	How Alfred restored the West Saxon Supremacy	31
	How Alfred prepared the Way for English Unity	31-32
	Alfred's Reforms	32
	Why Alfred was called Alfred the Great	32-34
899-1042.	Chapter IV. How England became one Kingdom, and how it was conquered by the Danes	35-41
899-955.	Edward the Elder, first King of the English, and his Sons	35-36
955-975.	The Reigns of Edwy and Edgar	36
	Archbishop Dunstan	36-37
	The Monastic Movement	37-38
975-1016.	The Reigns of Edward the Martyr and Ethelred the Unready	38
	The Danes renew their Invasions	38-39
1002-1013.	The Massacre of St. Brice's Day and the Invasion of Sweden	39
1016.	The Struggle of Cnut and Edmund Ironside	39-40
1017-1035.	Cnut, King of Denmark, Norway, and England	40-41
	The Great Earldoms	41
1035-1042.	The Sons of Cnut	41

Contents

ix

DATE	PAGE
1042-1066. Chapter V. The Reigns of Edward the Confessor and Harold	42-50
1035-1042. Reigns of the Sons of Canut and Accession of	
Edward the Confessor	42-43
The Normans in France	43-44
The House of Godwin	44-45
1066. The Death of Edward the Confessor	45-46
" Harold made King	46-47
1066. Harold defeats Harold Hardrada	47-48
" The Battle of Hasting	48-49
Chapter VI. English Life before the Norman Conquest	
Town Life	51
Country Life	51-52
Crime and Punishment	52-53
Slaves	53
Freemen and Thengs	53
The Army	54
The King	54
The Witenagemot	54-55
Shire, Hundred, and Township	55

BOOK II.

1066-1216. NORMAN AND ANGEVIN BRITAIN	56-99
1066-1154. Chapter VII. The Norman Kings of the English	56-72
1066-1071. The Norman Conquest	56-57
1071. Hereward subdued	57
Norman Castles	57-60
The Feudal System	60
The King and the Norman Barons	60-61
William and the English	61
The Normans and the Church	62-63
1086. Domesday Book	63
The Conqueror and his Sons	63-65
1087-1100. The Reign of William II., Rufus	65-68
William II. and Anselm	66
1100. Death of William Rufus	67-68
" Henry I. becomes King	68-69
1103-1107. Quarrel of Henry I. and Anselm	69
Henry I.'s just Rule	69-70
1120-1135. The Loss of the White Ship, and the Death of Henry I.	70

DATE		PAGE
1135-1154	The Misrule of King Stephen	70-71
" "	State of England during the War between Stephen and Matilda	71
1154-1189.	Chapter VIII. Henry II. of Anjou . . .	73-84
	The House of Anjou	73
	Character of Henry II. . . .	74
	Henry II.'s Continental Dominions . . .	74-75
	The Restoration of Law and Order . . .	75-77
1166.	Henry II.'s Reforms. The Assize of Clarendon, and Trial by Jury	77
	The Grand Assize	78
1181.	The Assize of Arms and Scutage . . .	78
	The Normans and English become one People	78-79
	Thomas Becket	79
1164.	The Constitutions of Clarendon, and the Quarrel of Henry and Becket	79-80
1170.	The Murder of St. Thomas of Canterbury .	80-82
	Henry II. as Lord of the British Isles . .	82-83
	Wales	82
	Scotland	82-83
1171.	The Norman Conquest of Ireland . . .	83
1173-1189.	Henry II.'s Family Troubles and Death .	83-84
1189-1199.	Chapter IX. Richard I., the Lion Heart .	85-90
	Character of Richard I. . . .	85
1189-1199.	England under Richard's Rule	85-87
1095.	The First Crusade	87-88
1189.	The Third Crusade	88-89
1192-1194.	Richard's Captivity in Germany . . .	89
1194-1199.	Richard's Wars against France, and Death .	89-90
1199-1216.	Chapter X. John Lackland	91-99
1199.	Accession and Character of John . . .	91-92
1204.	The Loss of Normandy and Anjou . . .	92
	Results of their Loss	93
1205.	Disputed Election of Canterbury . . .	93
1206.	John's Quarrel with Innocent III. . . .	94-95
1208.	The Interdict	95
1209.	Excommunication of John	95-96
1213.	John becomes the Pope's Vassal	96
"	Quarrel between John and his Barons . .	96-97
1215.	The Barons wrest Magna Carta from John .	97-98
1216.	John's War with his Barons, who call in Louis of France	98-99

Contents

xi

BOOK III.		
DATE		PAGE
1216-1399.	THE LATER PLANTAGENETS	100-157
1216-1272.	Chapter XI. Henry III. of Winchester	100-109
1217.	The Expulsion of Louis of France	100-101
1216-1219.	The Rule of William Marshall	101
1219-1232.	The Rule of Hubert de Burgh	101-102
	Character and Policy of Henry III.	102
	Henry III.'s foreign Favourites	102-103
1232-1258.	Henry III.'s Misrule	103
" "	Growth of baronial Opposition	104
1258.	The Provisions of Oxford	104
1258-1264.	The Barons' Wars	104-106
1265.	The Parliament of 1265	106-107
"	The Battle of Evesham	107-108
1272.	The Triumph of Edward and the Death of Henry III.	108-109
1272-1307.	Chapter XII. Edward I.	110-121
	Character of Edward I.	110-111
1277-1284.	The Conquest of the Principality of Wales	111-113
1066-1286.	Scotland up to the Death of Alexander III.	113-115
1289.	The Scottish Succession	115
1291.	The Scots appeal to Edward	115
"	Edward acknowledged by the Scots as their Overlord	115-116
1292.	Edward makes John Balliol King of Scots	116
1292-1296.	The Question of Appeals	116-117
1296.	Edward's first Conquest of Scotland	117-118
1297-1305.	Wallace's Rising	118-119
1306.	Rising of Robert Bruce	119-120
1295.	The Model Parliament	120-121
1297.	The Confirmation of the Charters	121
Chapter XIII. England in the Twelfth and Thirteenth Centuries		122-132
	The English Nation	122
	The Nobles and Knights	122
	The Manor—Life in the Country	122-123
	Manorial Agriculture	123-124
	Wandering Life of the King and Nobles	124
	The Towns	124-125
	Castles	125-126
	Churches	126-129

DATE		PAGE
	Early Gothic or Early English Architecture .	126-128
	Decorated Gothic Architecture . . .	129
	Dress and Armour	129-130
	The Mendicant Friars	130-131
	Their Work among the Poor	131
	Learning and the Universities	131-132
	Contrasts of Mediæval Life	132
1307-1327.	Chapter XIV. Edward II. of Carnarvon	133-137
1307-1312.	Edward II. and Gaveston	133-134
1312-1314.	Robert Bruce wins all Scotland	134
1314.	The Battle of Bannockburn	134-136
1314-1328.	Scotland secures its Independence	136
1312-1326.	Edward II. and the Despencers	136
1326-1327.	The Deposition and Death of Edward II.	136-137
1327-1377.	Chapter XV. Edward III.	138-149
1327-1330.	The Rule of Isabella and Mortimer	138
1332-1338.	Edward renews the War with Scotland	139-140
	Causes of the Hundred Years' War	140-141
1337-1338.	Edward's Claim to the French Throne	141-142
1340.	The Battle of Sluys	142-143
1346.	The Battle of Crecy	143-144
1346-1347.	Battle of Neville's Cross and Capture of Calais	145
1355.	The Black Prince in Aquitaine	145
1356.	The Battle of Poitiers	145-146
1360.	The Treaty of Calais	146
1360-1377.	The Collapse of the English Power in France	146
	Chaucer and the Revival of the English Tongue	146
1349.	The Black Death	146-148
„	The Foundation of the Order of the Garter	149
1376.	The Good Parliament	149
1377.	The Death of Edward III.	149
1377-1399.	Chapter XVI. Richard II. of Bordeaux	150-157
1377-1381.	The Minority of Richard II.	150
	The Causes of the Peasants' Revolt, and the Grievances of the Villeins	150-152
1381.	Wat Tyler and the Peasants' Revolt	152
„	Richard II. puts down the Revolt	152-153
1378-1384.	John Wycliffe preaches on Revolution in the Church	153-155
1397.	Richard II. becomes a Tyrant	155-156
1398.	The Banishment of Henry of Lancaster	156
1399.	The Deposition of Richard II.	156-157

Contents

xiii

BOOK IV.

DATE		PAGE
1399-1485.	THE HOUSES OF YORK AND LANCASTER	158-188
1399-1413.	Chapter XVII. Henry IV.	158-162
1399.	Henry iv.'s Claim to the Throne	158-159
1399-1461.	The Constitutional Rule of the Lancastrians	160
1399-1413.	The Persecution of the Lollards	160-161
1403-1413.	The Revolts of the Percies and Owen Glendower	161-162
1413-1422.	Chapter XVIII. Henry V.	163-167
	Character of Henry v.	163-164
1414.	Henry renews the Hundred Years' War	164
1415.	The Battle of Agincourt	165-166
1419.	The Murder of Duke John of Burgundy	166-167
1420.	The Treaty of Troyes	167
1422.	Death of Henry v.	167
1422-1461.	Chapter XIX. Henry VI.	168-176
1422-1429.	The Regent Bedford upholds the English Cause in France	168-170
1429.	The Siege of Orleans	170
„	The Mission of Joan of Arc	170-171
„	The Relief of Orleans and the Battle of Patay	171
„	Coronation of Charles vii.	171
1431.	The Martyrdom of Joan	171-172
1431-1453.	The Fall of the English Power in France, and the End of the Hundred Years' War	172
1422-1453.	England during Henry vi.'s Reign	173
1453.	The Protectorate of Richard Duke of York	174
1455.	Beginning of the Wars of the Roses	174
1461.	Deposition of Henry vi.	175-176
1461-1485.	Chapter XX. The House of York	177-188
1461.	Why Edward iv. became King	177-179
1470.	Quarrel of Edward iv. and Warwick	179
1470-1471.	The Restoration of Henry vi.	179
1471.	Edward iv. recovers the Throne	179-180
1471-1483.	The last Years of Edward iv.	180-181
1483.	The Reign of Edward v.	181
„	Richard iii. drives his Nephews from the Throne	181-182
1483-1485.	Richard iii. tries to make himself popular	182-183
1485.	The Invasion of Henry Tudor and the Death of Richard iii. at Bosworth	183

DATE		PAGE
	England in the Fifteenth Century . . .	183-188
	Perpendicular Gothic Architecture . . .	184-185
	Gunpowder and Plate Armour . . .	185-186
	The End of the Middle Ages . . .	186-187
	The Invention of Printing . . .	187
1477.	William Caxton introduces Printing into Eng- land	187

BOOK V.

1485-1603.	THE HOUSE OF TUDOR . . .	189-249
1485-1509.	Chapter XXI. Henry VII.	189-195
	Henry VII.'s Character and Claims to the throne	189-190
1485-1497.	Yorkist Plots and Pretenders . . .	190-192
1487.	Lambert Simnel	190-191
1492-1499.	Perkin Warbeck	191-192
	Henry VII.'s Spanish Alliance . . .	192-193
1503.	The Marriage of Margaret Tudor and James IV. of Scotland . . .	193-194
	Henry VII. increases the Royal Power . .	194
	The Destruction of the Power of the Barons .	194-195
	The popular Tudor Despotism . . .	195
1509-1547.	Chapter XXII. Henry VIII.	196-213
	Character of Henry VIII.	196-198
	Cardinal Wolsey	198-199
1509-1512.	Henry's early Foreign Policy . . .	199
1513.	The Battles of the Spurs and Flodden . .	199-200
1519-1547.	The Rivalry of Francis I. and Charles V. .	200
1520.	The Field of the Cloth of Gold . . .	200-201
1521-1525.	Renewed War with France	201-202
	Wolsey blamed for Henry's Failures . .	202
1527.	The Divorce of Catharine of Aragon demanded	202-203
1529.	Fall of Wolsey	203-204
1517.	Beginning of the Reformation . . .	204
1534.	The Breach between England and the Pope .	204-205
..	The Royal Supremacy established . . .	205
1535.	Execution of Sir Thomas More . . .	205-207
	The Monasteries	207-208
1536-1539.	The Suppression of the Monasteries . .	208
	Results of the Suppression	208-209
1536.	The Pilgrimage of Grace	210
1538.	The English Bible put in every Church .	210-211
	The King's Middle Way in Religion . .	211

Contents

XV

DATE		PAGE
1540.	The Fall of Thomas Cromwell . . .	211
1540-1547.	The last Years of Henry VIII. . . .	211-212
	Scotland and Henry VIII. . . .	212
	Ireland and Henry VIII. . . .	212-213
1536.	Union of England and Wales . . .	213
1547-1553.	Chapter XXIII. Edward VI. . . .	214-217
1547.	The Protector Somerset defeats the Scots . . .	214-215
1547-1549.	Somerset furthers the Reformation . . .	215-216
1549.	Revolts in Norfolk and Devonshire . . .	216
1549-1553.	The Rule of Northumberland . . .	216-217
1553.	The Death of Edward, and the Attempt to make Lady Jane Grey Queen . . .	217
1553-1558.	Chapter XXIV. Mary . . .	218-223
	Character of Queen Mary . . .	218
1553.	The Restoration of the old Religion . . .	218-219
1554.	Mary marries Philip of Spain . . .	219-220
"	The Restoration of the Pope's Supremacy . . .	220
1555-1558.	The Marian Martyrs . . .	221
1555-1556.	Deaths of Cranmer, Ridley, and Latimer . . .	221-222
1558.	Mary's Misfortunes and Death . . .	222-223
1558-1603.	Chapter XXV. Elizabeth . . .	224-249
	Character of Elizabeth . . .	224-226
1559.	The Elizabethan Settlement of Religion . . .	226
	The Queen and the Puritans . . .	227
	The Separatists or Independents . . .	227
	Elizabeth and the Roman Catholics . . .	227-228
	Elizabeth and Foreign Powers . . .	228
	Mary Queen of Scots . . .	228
	The Reformation in Scotland . . .	228-230
1561.	Mary returns to Scotland . . .	230
1567.	Deposition of Mary . . .	231
1568.	Mary's Flight to England . . .	231
1570.	Elizabeth excommunicated by the Pope . . .	231-232
	The Catholic Missionaries . . .	232
	Elizabeth persecutes the Roman Catholics . . .	232-233
1586.	The Babington Conspiracy . . .	233
1587.	The Execution of Mary Queen of Scots . . .	233-234
1572-1586.	England and Spain drift into War . . .	234
1586.	Leicester and Philip Sidney in the Nether- lands . . .	234-235
	The Struggle between England and Spain on the Ocean . . .	235-241
	Hawkins and the Slave-trade . . .	236
1577-1580.	Drake's Voyage round the World . . .	237-238

DATE		PAGE
	Sir Walter Raleigh	238
1587.	Drake at Cadiz	238-239
1588.	The Spanish Armada	239-240
"	The Armada in the Channel	240-241
"	Defeat of the Armada	241
"	The War with Spain	242
1588-1603.	The Elizabethan Conquest of Ireland	242-244
	Glories of the End of Elizabeth's Reign	244-247
	Architecture	244-245
	Luxury and Comfort	245-246
	Travel	246
	Elizabethan Literature	247

BOOK VI.

1603-1714.	THE HOUSE OF STEWART	250-322
1603-1625.	Chapter XXVI. James I.	250-260
1603.	James I. as King of Great Britain and Ireland	250-252
1607.	The Beginnings of English Colonies in America	252
1620.	The Puritan Colonies in New England	252-253
1600.	The East India Company	253-254
1603-1688.	The Struggle between the Stewart Kings and their Parliaments	254
	Character and Policy of James I.	254-255
	James I. and the Puritans	255
	James I. and the Catholics	255
1605.	The Gunpowder Plot	255-256
	James I. and his Parliaments	256
	James's Favourites and Ministers	256-257
1621.	The Fall of Bacon	258
	James's Alliance with Spain	258-259
1618.	Raleigh's last Voyage and Execution	259-260
1618-1625.	The last Years of James I.	260
1625-1649.	Chapter XXVII. Charles I.	261-277
1625.	Charles I. quarrels with Spain and with his Parliaments	261-263
1626.	Charles's Quarrel with France	263
1628.	The Petition of Right	264
1629.	The Murder of Buckingham	264
"	Charles's final Quarrel with his third Parlia- ment	264-265
1629-1640.	Charles rules without a Parliament	265
	Laud and the Puritans	265-266
	The High Commission Court and the Star Chamber	266-267
	Wentworth in Ireland	267

Contents

xvii

DATE		PAGE
1637.	The Scottish Prayer Book	267
1638.	The National Covenant	267
1638-1640.	The Scots successfully resist Charles . . .	267-268
1640.	The Meeting of the Long Parliament . . .	268
1640-1641.	The Long Parliament destroys Charles's System of Government	268
1641.	Attainder of Strafford	269
"	The Irish Rebellion	269
"	The Root and Branch Bill	269-270
"	The Grand Remonstrance	270
1642.	The Arrest of the Five Members	270-271
1642-1646.	The Great Rebellion	271-277
1642.	The Battle of Edgehill	271-272
1643-1644.	Gloucester, Newbury, and Marston Moor . .	272-274
1644-1645.	Montrose's Victories and Defeat	274
1644.	Oliver Cromwell and the New Model . . .	274-276
1645.	The Battle of Naseby and Defeat of the King .	276
1646-1648.	Presbyterians and Independents	276-277
1648.	The Triumph of the Independents in the Second Civil War	277
1649.	Execution of Charles I. . . .	277
1649-1660.	Chapter XXVIII. The Commonwealth and the Protectorate	278-285
1649.	Proclamation of a Commonwealth	278
"	The Puritan Conquest of Ireland	278-279
1650.	The Battle of Dunbar	279
1651.	The Battle of Worcester	279-280
1653.	The Expulsion of the Rump	280-281
"	The Barebones' Parliament	281
1653-1658.	Cromwell's Rule as Protector	281-282
" "	Cromwell's Puritan Church	282-283
" "	Cromwell's Foreign Policy	283
" "	Death of Cromwell	283-284
1658-1659.	Failure of Richard Cromwell	284
1660.	The Restoration of Charles II. . . .	284-285
1660-1685.	Chapter XXIX. Charles II. . . .	286-297
1660.	The Restoration Settlement	286-288
1661.	Settlement of the Church	288-289
	Charles II.'s Foreign Policy	289-290
1660-1685.	Colonies and Trade under the Restoration .	290-291
1660-1667.	Clarendon and Charles II. . . .	291
1665.	The Plague of London	291
1666.	The Great Fire of London	291-292
1667-1673.	The Cabal	292-293
1673-1678.	Danby's Ministry	293-294
1678.	Fall of Danby	294

DATE		PAGE
1678.	The Popish Plot	294-295
1679-1681.	The Exclusion Bill	295
1679.	The <i>Habcas Corpus</i> Act	295-296
"	Whigs and Tories	296
1681-1683.	The Tory Reaction and the Flight of Shaftesbury	296
1683.	The Rye House Plot	296
1685.	The Death of Charles II.	297
1685-1688.	Chapter XXX. James II.	298-302
1685.	James II.'s Accession and Character	298
"	Monmouth's Rebellion	299-300
1685-1688.	James's Attempts to restore Catholicism and Arbitrary Rule	300
1688.	The Declaration of Indulgence	300-301
"	The Fall of James II.	301-302
1689-1702.	Chapter XXXI. William III. and Mary	303-310
	The Results of the Revolution	303
1689.	The Bill of Rights	303
"	The Toleration Act	303-304
1701.	The Act of Settlement	304-305
	The Cabinet System and Party Government	305
	How our Modern Constitution has grown up	306-307
1689-1691.	The Revolution in Ireland	307-308
1689.	The Revolution in Scotland	308
"	The Battle of Killiecrankie	308
1692.	The Massacre of Glencoe	308
1689-1697.	War with France	309
	The National Debt	309
1694.	Death of Queen Mary	309
	William III. and the Jacobites	310
1701.	Death of James II.	310
1702.	Death of William III.	310
1702-1714.	Chapter XXXII. Anne	311-322
	Queen Anne and Marlborough	311-312
1702-1713.	War of the Spanish Succession	312-316
1704-1709.	Marlborough's Victories	313
1704.	Capture of Gibraltar	313-314
	The Tories oppose the War	314-315
1710.	The Tory Ministry	315
1713.	The Peace of Utrecht	315-316
1707.	The Union of England and Scotland	316-318
1713-1716.	The last Years of Queen Anne	318
	The Towns and Commercial Progress	318-319
	Social Life in the Stewart Period	319-321
	The Manners and Literature of the Restoration	321-322

BOOK VII.

DATE	PAGE
1714-1901. THE HOUSE OF HANOVER . . .	323-418
1714-1727. Chapter XXXIII. George I. . .	323-327
1714-1761. The House of Hanover and the long Whig Rule . . .	323-324
1715. The Jacobite Revolt . . .	324-325
1716. The Septennial Act . . .	325
1720. The South Sea Bubble . . .	325-326
1721. Walpole's Ministry . . .	326
1727. Death of George I. . .	327
1727-1760. Chapter XXXIV. George II. . .	328-341
1727. Accession of George II. . .	328
His family . . .	328-329
1721-1742. Walpole Prime Minister . . .	329-330
Walpole's Home Policy . . .	330
Walpole's Foreign Policy . . .	330
1740-1748. War of the Austrian Succession . . .	330-331
1745. The last Jacobite Revolt . . .	331-332
The March to Derby . . .	332
1746. The Battle of Culloden . . .	332-334
1744-1764. Henry Pelham's Ministry . . .	334
The Age of Reason . . .	334-335
1757. William Pitt becomes Chief Minister . . .	335-336
John Wesley and the Methodists . . .	336
The English and French in America . . .	336-337
The English and French in India . . .	337
1756. Beginnings of the Seven Years' War . . .	337-339
1757. Admiral Byng shot . . .	339
Pitt saves England . . .	340
1759. The Conquest of Canada . . .	341
1757. The Conquest of Bengal . . .	341
1760. The Death of George II. . .	341
1760-1820. Chapter XXXV. George III. . .	342-367
1760. George III.'s Accession . . .	343
His Character and Policy . . .	343-344
1760-1770. George III.'s first Struggles for Power . . .	344
1770-1782. Lord North's Ministry . . .	344
1765-1767. American Taxation . . .	345
The Causes of the American War . . .	345-347
1775. The American Declaration of Independence . . .	347-348
1778. France and Spain help America . . .	348
Chatham and American Independence . . .	348
1778-1783. England against Europe and America . . .	348-350

Contents

DATE		PAGE
1783.	The Coalition Ministry and its Failure	350-352
1783-1801.	The Rule of the younger Pitt	352-353
1773-1785.	Warren Hastings Governor-General of India	353
1788.	His Impeachment	353
	The Age of Inventions	353
	Britain becomes a great Seat of Manufac- tures	353-354
1789-1793.	The French Revolution	354-355
	England and the French Revolution	355
1793-1802.	The War against the French Revolution	355-356
1799.	Napoleon Bonaparte becomes First Consul	356-358
1802.	The Treaty of Amiens	358
	Why there was no Revolution in England	358
1782-1800.	Ireland under Grattan's Parliament	358-359
1798.	The United Irishmen and the Irish Rebellion	359
1800.	The Union of Great Britain and Ireland	359-360
1802-1815.	The War against Napoleon	360-367
1805.	The Battle of Trafalgar	361-363
1806.	Death of Pitt and Fox	362
1807-1830.	The long Tory Rule	362-364
1808-1814.	The Peninsular War	364-365
1814.	The Fall of Napoleon	365-367
1815.	The Battle of Waterloo	367
1810-1820.	The Regency	367
1820.	Death of George III.	367
1820-1830.	Chapter XXXVI. George IV.	368-373
1820.	Accession and Character of George IV.	368
	The old and the new Tories	368-370
1822-1827.	George Canning	370-371
1829.	Catholic Emancipation granted	371
1830.	Death of George IV.	371
1830.	Opening of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway	372
	Railways and Steamships	372-373
1830-1837.	Chapter XXXVII. William IV.	374-378
1830.	Accession of William IV.	374
	His Character	374
	The Movement for Parliamentary Reform	374-376
1832.	The Whigs pass the great Reform Bill	376-377
1832-1835.	Further Whig Reforms	377-378
1837.	Death of William IV.	378
1837-1901.	Chapter XXXVIII. Victoria	379-410
1837.	Accession of Victoria	380
1840-1861.	The Queen and Prince Albert	380

Contents

xxi

DATE		PAGE
1837-1841.	Repealers and Chartists	381-382
1841.	Peel's Triumph	382-383
	The Anti-Corn Law Agitation	383-384
1845-1847.	The Irish Famine	384
1846.	Abolition of the Corn Laws	384-385
	The Evangelical Revival	385
1832-1843.	The Oxford Movement	386
1845.	The Scottish Disruption	386
1846-1852.	The Russell Ministry	386
	Collapse of the Chartists and Repealers	386-388
1852-1855.	The Coalition Ministry	388
1854-1856.	The Crimean War	388-390
1854-1855.	The Siege of Sebastopol	390
1857.	The Indian Mutiny	390
1858.	India annexed to the Crown	391
1877.	The Queen made Empress of India	391
1855-1865.	Palmerston's Rule and Death	391-392
1867.	The Second Reform Act	392-393
1868-1874.	The great Gladstone Ministry	393-395
" "	Irish Troubles and Remedies	393-394
" "	Gladstone's other Reforms	394-395
1870-1871.	The Franco-German War	395
1838-1874.	Gladstone's Foreign Policy	395
1874-1880.	The Disraeli Ministry	395-398
1877-1878.	The Russo-Turkish War	396-398
1878.	The Treaty of Berlin	398
1880-1885.	Gladstone restored to Power	398-401
1881.	Death and Character of Beaconsfield	398-399
	Egyptian Troubles	399-400
1885.	Gordon's Death at Khartum	400-401
	Home Rule and the Fall of Gladstone	401
1884.	The Third Reform Act	401
1886.	Gladstone declares for Home Rule	401-402
1886-1892.	Salisbury Unionist Government	402
1892-1895.	Gladstone-Rosebery Home Rule Government	402
1895-1901.	Second Salisbury Unionist Government	402
	The British Colonies	403
1867.	The Dominion of Canada established	403
	Australia	403
1901.	Commonwealth of Australia established	404
	South Africa	404
1899-1901.	The Boer War	404-405
	Growth of Unity and Good Feeling in the British Empire	405
1901.	Death of Victoria	405

BOOK VIII.

DATE		PAGE
1901-1918.	THE HOUSE OF WINDSOR . . .	407-435
1901-1910.	Chapter XXXIX. Edward VII. . .	407-414
1901-1910.	Character of Edward VII. . .	407-409
1902.	End of Boer War . . .	409
1910.	The Federation of South Africa . . .	409
1901-1905.	The Salisbury and Balfour Ministries . . .	410-411
	Chamberlain and Tariff Reform . . .	411-412
1905-1910.	The Bannerman and Asquith Ministries . . .	412-413
	The Lords and the Budget of 1909 . . .	413
	The General Election of 1910 and the Veto Resolutions . . .	413-414
1910-1919.	Chapter XL. George V. and the Great War . . .	415-436
	George V. and the House of Windsor . . .	415
	The second General Election of 1910 . . .	415-417
1911.	The Parliament Act and the Insurance Act . . .	417
	The Resistance to Home Rule . . .	417-418
1914.	The Amending Bill and the Suspensory Act . . .	418
	Causes of the Great War . . .	418-419
1912.	The Balkan League . . .	419-420
1914.	Outbreak of the Great War . . .	420-421
	Battle of the Marne . . .	421
1914-1917.	The Trench Warfare in the West . . .	421-422
	The War on the Russian Front . . .	422
	The War in the South-East and in Asia . . .	422-423
	The War at Sea . . .	423
	German Ruthlessness . . .	423-424
	The efforts of Britain and her Allies . . .	424-425
1915-1916.	The Asquith National Ministry . . .	425-426
1916-1919.	The Lloyd George Coalition Ministry . . .	426
1917.	The Campaigns of 1917 . . .	426-427
1918.	The Last German Successes . . .	427
1918.	The Unity of Command . . .	427-428
	The Turn of the Tide . . .	428
	Victory in the East . . .	428
	The Collapse of Austria . . .	428-429
	The Submission of Germany . . .	429-430
1919.	The Peace of Versailles . . .	430
1916-1919.	British Reforms during the War. . .	431-432
1914-1919.	Ireland and Sinn Féin . . .	432-433
1837-1919.	Progress under Victoria, Edward VII., and George V. . .	433-436
INDEX	. . .	437

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

	PAGE
Westminster Abbey	<i>Frontispiece</i>
Palæolithic Flint Scraper	2
Palæolithic Flint Implement	2
Engraved Bone from Creswell Crags	2
View of Stonehenge	3
Neolithic Axe	4
Neolithic Flint Arrow-head	4
Early British Pottery	5
Caius Julius Cæsar	6
Roman Soldiers crossing a Bridge of Boats	8
A Portion of the Roman Wall at Borcovicus	9
British Gold Ornament	12
A Danish Ship	27
Facsimile of Orosius's Chronicle, translated by Alfred	33
Saxon Church at Bradford-on-Avon	44
Harold returning to England (Bayeux Tapestry)	46
Tomb of Edward the Confessor in Westminster Abbey	47
Norman Soldiers (Bayeux Tapestry)	49
Anglo-Saxon Drinking-Glasses	52
Gold Jewel of Alfred found at Athelney	53
Keep of Rochester Castle	59
Church of St. Stephen, Caen	62
Facsimile of Part of <i>Domesday Book</i>	64
William goes to Bayeux (Bayeux Tapestry)	65
Tomb of William Rufus in Winchester Cathedral	67
The South Gate of Cardiff Castle in 1775	68
A Silver Penny of William the Conqueror	72
<i>Planta genista</i>	74
Queen Eleanor of Aquitaine	75
Henry II.	75
The Martyrdom, Canterbury Cathedral	81
Queen Berengaria	86
Richard I.	86
Effigy of a Knight in the Temple Church, London, showing . . . Armour at the End of the Twelfth Century	87
King John	92
The Prior's Seat, Chapter House, Canterbury	94

	PAGE
Facsimile of a Portion of Magna Carta	98
A Silver Penny of John	99
Henry III.	101
Conway Castle	113
Carnarvon Castle	114
Coronation Chair, Westminster Abbey	118
Tomb of Edward I. at Westminster Abbey	120
The Jews' House at Lincoln	125
Keep of Conisbro' Castle	126
Part of the Choir of Canterbury Cathedral	127
Saxon Window, St. Benet's Church, Cambridge	128
Norman Window, St. John's, Devizes	128
Early English Doorway, Uffington, Berkshire	128
Decorated Window, Leigh Church, Staffordshire	128
Lay Costumes of the Twelfth Century	129
Effigy of William Longespée, Earl of Salisbury, showing Armour, 1225-1250	130
Edward II.	134
Edward III.	139
Queen Philippa of Hainault	139
A Small House at Meare, Somerset (about 1350)	141
The Battle of Crecy	143
Edward the Black Prince (showing Plate Armour)	145
Tomb of Edward III. in Westminster Abbey	148
Ploughing (about the Middle of the Fourteenth Century)	149
Richard II.	151
Interior of Lutterworth Church	154
Facsimile of Portion of a Page of a Manuscript of Wycliffe's Bible	155
Royal Arms, 1408-1603	159
Thomas Cranley, Archbishop of Dublin, showing Archiepis- copal Vestments	160
Tomb of Henry IV., Canterbury Cathedral	161
Henry V.	164
Henry VI.	173
Edward IV.	178
The Bear and Ragged Staff (Warwick's Badge)	179
Richard III.	182
Perpendicular Window, Headcorn, Kent	184
Tattershall Castle, Lincolnshire	185
Effigy of Richard Beauchamp, Earl of Warwick, showing Fifteenth-Century Plate Armour	186
Henry VII.	190
Elizabeth of York, Queen of Henry VII.	191
Henry VIII.	197
Cardinal Wolsey	199
The Embarkation of Henry VIII. from Dover, 1520	201
Catharine of Aragon	203
Sir Thomas More	206

List of Illustrations

xxv

	PAGE
Bermondsey Abbey	207
Fountains Abbey	209
The <i>Great Harry</i>	210
Edward VI.	215
Queen Mary Tudor	219
Calais in the Sixteenth Century	222
Queen Elizabeth	225
Mary Queen of Scots	229
Sir Francis Drake	237
Sir Walter Raleigh	239
The <i>Ark Royal</i>	240
William Cecil, Lord Burghley	245
William Shakespeare	246
A Coach in the Reign of Elizabeth	247
North-west View of Hatfield House, Herts	248
King James I.	251
George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham	257
Sir Francis Bacon	258
King Charles I.	262
Queen Henrietta Maria	263
Archbishop Laud	266
Soldier with Musket and Crutch, about 1630	276
Oliver Cromwell	280
Charles II.	287
Dress of the Horse Guards at the Restoration	288
Old St. Paul's, London	292
New St. Paul's, London	293
James II.	299
William III.	304
Mary II.	306
Queen Anne	312
Battle of Blenheim	314
Duke of Marlborough	316
Sarah Jennings, Duchess of Marlborough	317
A Gentleman, Time of Charles I.	320
A Gentlewoman, Time of Charles I.	320
A Countryman, Time of Charles I.	320
A Countrywoman, Time of Charles I.	320
Wagon of the Second Half of the Seventeenth Century	321
Coach of the Latter Half of the Seventeenth Century	321
George I.	324
George II.	329
Lord Chatham	339
General Wolfe	340
George III.	343
George Washington	347
Charles James Fox	351
William Pitt the Younger	352
Group of Sailors, 1797	356

	PAGE
Napoleon Bonaparte	357
Lord Nelson	361
The Duke of Wellington	364
Grenadier in the Time of the Peninsular War	365
George IV.	369
George Canning	370
The <i>Rocket</i> (locomotive)	373
William IV.	375
Viscount Melbourne	378
Queen Victoria	381
Sir Robert Peel	383
The New Houses of Parliament	387
W. E. Gladstone	394
The Earl of Beaconsfield	397
King Edward VII.	408
Queen Alexandra	410
George V.	415
Lord Beatty	<i>facing</i> 423
Lord Haig	426
Marshal Foch	427

LIST OF MAPS AND PLANS

	PAGE
The Roman Advance on Gaul and Britain	7
The Roman Roads in Britain	11
The old Homes of the English	15
South Britain after the English Conquest (about 600)	18
The Welsh and English Lands in Offa's Time	26
England after Alfred and Guthrum's Peace, 886	30
The old Homes of the Norsemen,	34
Cnut's Dominions, showing the three great Earldoms in England	40
Battle of Hastings	48
The Dominions of Will'am the Conqueror	58
The Angevin Empire	76
Map showing Position of Runnymede	97
The English Dominions in 1259	105
The Battle of Evesham	108
Wales and the Marches between Edward I. and Henry VIII.	112
Southern Scotland, 1289-1328	117
Battle of Bannockburn	135
The Campaign of Edward III. in 1346	142
Battle of Crecy, 1346	144
The English Dominions in France after the Treaty of Calais, 1360	147
Henry V.'s Campaign in 1415	165
Battle of Agincourt, 1415	166
The English King's Dominions in France in 1429	169
England during the Wars of the Roses	175
Ireland under the Tudors	243
England and Wales during the Great Civil War (May 1643)	273
England and Wales during the Great Civil War (Nov. 1644)	275
Scotland and the North of England ; illustrating the Jacobite Risings of 1689, 1715, and 1745-6	333
North America in 1756	338
North America in 1763	346
North America in 1783	349
Battle of Trafalgar, 1805	363
Map to illustrate the Peninsular War	366
The Crimean War	389
Egypt and Khartum	400
The British Empire in 1920	406
The Great War: Map to show the furthest advance of the Germans	422

LIST OF GENEALOGICAL TABLES

	PAGE
Genealogy of the Chief English Kings of the West Saxon House, showing the Descent of our later Kings from them	50
Genealogy of the Norman Kings	72
Genealogy of the English Kings from Henry II. to Edward III.	137
Table showing the Claims of Edward III., and Philip VI. to the French Throne	142
Genealogy of the Descendants of Edward III., to show the Claims of York and Lancaster to the Throne	157
Genealogy of the House of Tudor	188
Genealogy of the Stewart Kings in Scotland and England .	249
Genealogical Table of the House of Hanover	322

TABLE OF KINGS AND QUEENS

THE OLD ENGLISH KINGS.

	PAGE
Egbert (King of the West Saxons), 802-839	27
Ethelwulf (" "), 839-858	27
Alfred (" "), 871-899	28-34
Edward the Elder (first King of the English), 899-924	35-36
Athelstan, 924-940	36
Edmund, 940-946	36
Edred, 946-955	36
Edwy, 955-959	36
Edgar the Peaceful, 959-975	36-38
Edward the Martyr, 975-978	38
Ethelred the Unready, 978-1016	38-39
Edmund Ironside, 1016	39-40
Cnut, 1017-1035	40-41
Harold Harefoot, 1035-1040	42
Harthacnut, 1040-1042	42
Edward the Confessor, 1042-1066	42-46
Harold, son of Godwin, 1066	46-49

THE NORMAN KINGS.

William I., the Conqueror, 1066-1087	56-65
William II., Rufus, 1087-1100	65-68
Henry I., 1100-1135	68-70
Stephen, 1135-1155	70-71

THE HOUSE OF ANJOU.

Henry II. of Anjou, 1155-1189	73-84
Richard I., the Lion Heart, 1189-1199	85-90
John Lackland, 1199-1216	91-99
Henry III. of Winchester, 1216-1272	100-109
Edward I., 1272-1307	110-121
Edward II. of Carnarvon, 1307-1327	133-137
Edward III., 1327-1377	138-149
Richard II. of Bordeaux, 1377-1399	150-157

Table of Kings and Queens

THE HOUSE OF LANCASTER.

	PAGE
Henry iv., 1399-1413	158-162
Henry v., 1413-1422	163-167
Henry vi., 1422-1461	168-176
and 1470-1471	179-180

THE HOUSE OF YORK.

Edward iv., 1461-1470	177-179
and 1471-1483	180-181
Edward v., 1483	181
Richard iii., 1483-1485	181-183

THE HOUSE OF TUDOR.

Henry vii., 1485-1509	189-195
Henry viii., 1509-1547	198-213
Edward vi., 1547-1553	214-217
Mary, 1553-1558	218-223
Elizabeth, 1558-1603	224-249

THE HOUSE OF STEWART.

James i., 1603-1625	250-260
Charles i., 1625-1649	261-277
The Commonwealth, 1649-1653	278-281
and 1659-1660	284-285
Oliver Cromwell, Protector, 1653-1658	281-284
Richard Cromwell, Protector, 1658-1659	284
Charles ii., 1660-1685	286-297
James ii., 1685-1688	298-302
William iii. and Mary ii., 1689-1691 }	303-310
William iii., 1689-1702	
Anne, 1702-1714	311-322

THE HOUSE OF HANOVER.

George i., 1714-1727	323-327
George ii., 1727-1760	328-341
George iii., 1760-1820	342-367
George iv., 1820-1830	368-373
William iv., 1830-1837	373-378
Victoria, 1837-1901	379-405

THE HOUSE OF WINDSOR.

Edward vii., 1901-1910	407-414
George v., 1910	414-436

LIST OF THE CHIEF MINISTRIES SINCE 1702

	PAGE
Marlborough's Ministry, 1702-1710	314-315
Harley and Saint John's Ministry (Tory), 1710-1713	315-316
Walpole's Ministry (Whig), 1721-1742	326-330
Pelham's Ministry (Whig), 1744-1754	334
Pitt-Newcastle Ministry (Whig), 1757-1761	335-344
Short-lived Coalition Ministries, 1761-1770	344
Lord North's Ministry (Tory), 1770-1782	344-350
The Coalition Ministry of Fox (Whig) and North (Tory), 1783	350-351
The Younger Pitt's Ministry (Tory), 1783-1801	351-360
Pitt's Second Ministry (Tory), 1803-1806	360
Ministry of all the Talents (Whigs and Tories), 1806-1807	362
Tory Ministries under various Prime Ministers, 1807-1827	362-370
Canning's Ministry (New Tories), 1827	370-371
Wellington Ministry (Old Tories), 1827-1830	371-374
Grey Ministry (Whig), 1830-1834	376-377
Melbourne Ministry (Whig), 1834-1841	377-382
Peel's Ministry (Conservative), 1841-1846	382-385
Lord John Russell's Ministry (Liberal), 1846-1852	386
First Derby and Disraeli Ministry (Conservative), 1852	388
Aberdeen Coalition Ministry (Liberal and Peelite), 1852- 1855	388-391
Palmerston's Ministries (Liberal), 1855-1858, and 1859-1865	391-392
Third Derby-Disraeli Ministry (Conservative), 1866-1868	392
Gladstone Ministry (Liberal), 1868-1874	393-395
Disraeli Ministry (Conservative), 1874-1880	396-399
Second Gladstone Ministry (Liberal), 1880-1885	398-401
Third Gladstone Ministry (Liberal), 1886	402
Salisbury Ministry (Unionist), 1886-1892	402-403
Gladstone and Rosebery Ministries (Home Rulers), 1892- 1895	402
Salisbury Ministry (Unionist), 1895-1902	402-403
Balfour Ministry (Unionist), 1902-1905	410-411
Campbell-Bannerman Ministry (Liberal), 1905-1908	412-413
Asquith Ministry (Liberal) 1908-1915	413-425
Asquith Ministry (National) 1915-1916	425-426
Lloyd George Ministry (Coalition) 1916-	426-433



BOOK I

BRITAIN BEFORE THE NORMAN CONQUEST Up to 1066

CHAPTER I

Britain before the English Conquest up to 449

Principal Persons :

Julius Cæsar ; the Emperor Claudius ; St. Patrick.

Principal Dates :

55-54 B.C. Invasions of Britain by Julius Cæsar.

43 A.D. Claudius begins the Roman Conquest of Britain.

410 A.D. The Romans withdraw from Britain.

410-449 A.D. The Britons independent.

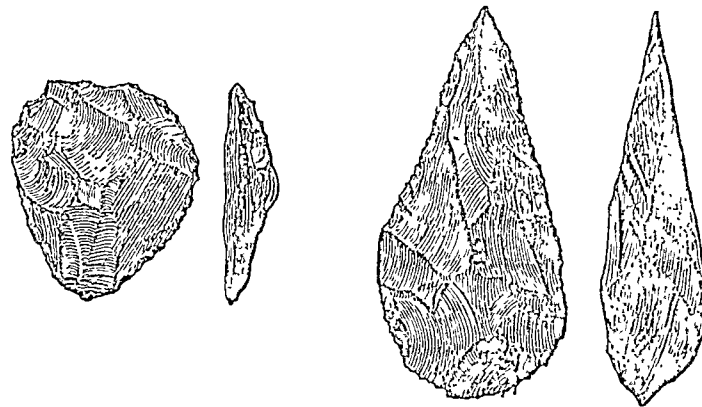
The chief early races of Britain were :

- (1) The Cave Men.
- (2) The Iberians.
- (3) The Celts.

1. Many thousand years ago the islands of Britain and Ireland were very different from what they are now. It was hotter in summer and colder in winter. Wild beasts, such as lions and bears, roamed about the desolate hills and swampy valleys, seeking for their prey. Against them fought, as best they could, a few savage men, little better than dwarfs. They were so ignorant that they could not plough the fields. They did not know how to use metals, and their only tools and weapons were made of flints, rudely cut and sharpened. For this reason

2 Britain before the English Conquest

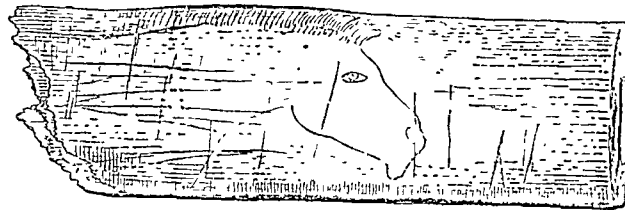
the time at which they lived was called the *palæolithic* or old stone age. These primitive men sought out dwellings for themselves in caves, where their remains



Paleolithic Flint Scraper from
Icklingham, Suffolk. (Evans.)

Paleolithic Flint Implement
from Horne, Suffolk.

are still found. The cleverest things they made were pictures of animals, scratched upon flat pieces of bone. We do not know how these men came to our land, how long they lived there, or what tongue they spoke. It is very unlikely that any of the present inhabitants



Engraved Bone from Creswell Crags, Derbyshire.
(Now in the British Museum.)

of the British islands are descended from them. Yet we should remember these *cave men* because they were the first human beings who ever dwelt in the land of Britain.

2. Ages passed away and the cave men disappeared. Their place was taken by another race of men, who

are sometimes called *Iberians*, because they are thought to be the same as the old inhabitants of Spain, which was once called Iberia. These were short, dark-skinned, black-haired men, whose skulls were long and narrow. Many of the short, dark men now living in Britain and Ireland are like what these Iberians must have been. and probably

The
Iberians.

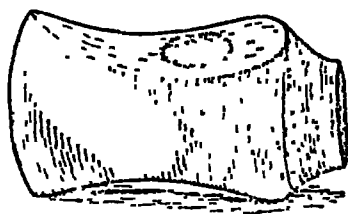


View of Stonehenge. (From a Photograph.)

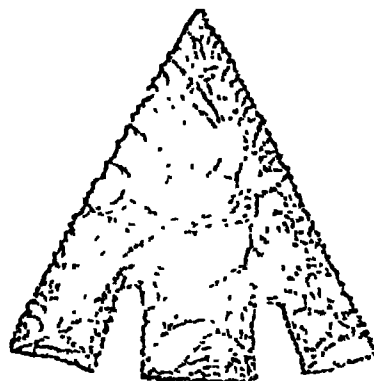
Iberian blood still runs in their veins. It is very likely that the great circles of huge stones, like *Stonehenge* in Salisbury Plain, which are found still remaining, are the work of this people. The Iberians were much less savage than the race that had gone before them. Though still ignorant of metals, their stone tools were beautifully neat and useful. The time when they flourished is called the *neolithic* or the new stone age. They ground corn, wove wool into cloth, and made vessels of coarse pottery.

4 Britain before the English Conquest

3. The next people that came to Britain were called the *Celts*. They were a tall, fair-skinned, light-haired race, with round skulls, and they spoke languages which are still the mother-tongues of many of us. They overcame the little dark Iberians, and forced them to learn their language and customs. Many of us are descended from these Celts, or the race formed by the mixing together of the Celts with the Iberians. The Irish, the Manx, the Scottish Highlanders, and the Welsh are either pure Celts or come



Neolithic Axe from Winterbourn
Steepleton, Dorset. (Evans.)



Neolithic Flint Arrow-head from
Rudstone, Yorks. (Evans.)

from this mixed stock. Most of the Welsh, and some of the Irish and Highland Scots, still speak Celtic languages. Even in the rest of Britain many people are mainly of these races. The Celts were not only stronger but more civilised than the earlier inhabitants of Britain. They brought in the use of metals, and made their tools and arms at first of bronze and afterwards also of iron. They wore clothes, and were fond of gold and silver bracelets and ornaments. The use of pottery was well understood by them. Their wealth was chiefly in great flocks of sheep and herds of cattle. They were famous horsemen, and the chiefs rode to battle in war-chariots, with which they fiercely charged the enemy. They were brave, polite, and enterprising, but fickle,

suspicious, and not very persevering. Living for the most part in the country in scattered houses, when the enemy invaded their land they took refuge in great camps or *duns*, perched on high hill-tops, and defended by thick walls of earth and deep ditches. They were very religious, and worshipped many gods. They showed great respect for their priests, who were called *Druids*. They were fond of poetry and songs, in which they told of the deeds of famous warriors. They were divided into tribes, each of



Early British Pottery

which had its separate chieftain. These tribes were constantly fighting with one another. The Celts dwelling in the south were called the *Britons*, and from them our island got its name of *Britain*.

4. Two thousand years ago the most powerful people in the world were the *Romans*. They were originally the inhabitants of the city of Rome in Italy, but they had first conquered all Italy, and then made themselves masters of all the civilised world. They were much wiser, stronger, and richer than the Britons, and they looked upon the inhabitants of this land as little better than savages dwelling in the remotest ends of the earth.

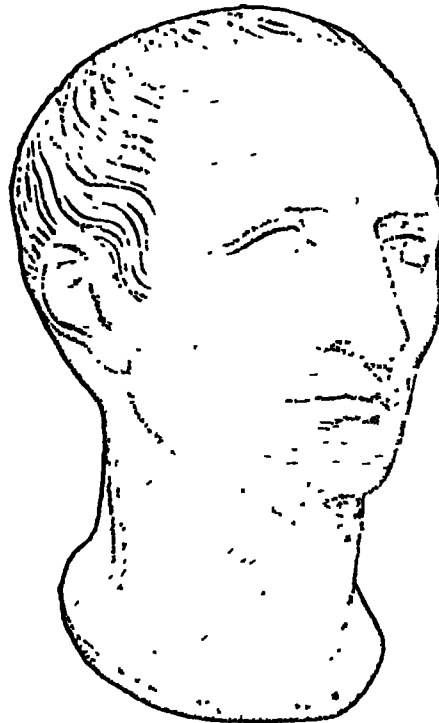
The
Romans.

5. The most famous general and statesman that the Romans had ever had was *Caius Julius Cæsar*. He

6 Britain before the English Conquest [B.C. 55-

brought about a great change in the government of his country. Before his time Rome was a republic, ruled by the nobles. But Cæsar made himself lord over all the Romans, governing them as a general commands his soldiers. He thus became the founder of the Roman Empire.

Julius Cæsar
and the
Roman
Empire.

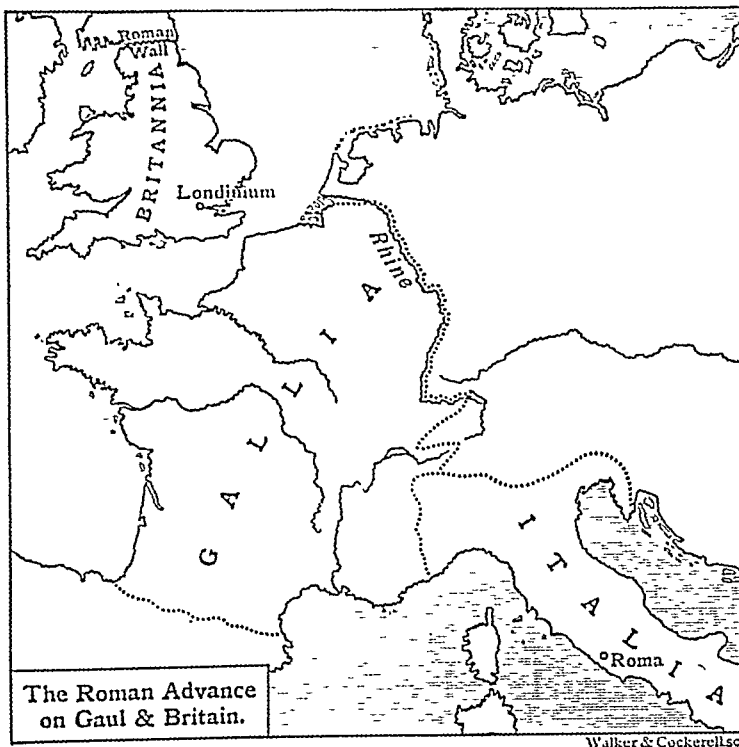


Caius Julius Cæsar.
(From a Bust in the British Museum.)

6. Cæsar was also a mighty conqueror, who added many new districts to the Roman dominions. The most famous of Cæsar's conquests was that of *Gaul*, the country now called France. But the people of that land, the Gauls, were Celts, like the Britons, and when they were hard pressed by Cæsar, their kinsfolk, the Britons, went to their help. To punish the Britons for this, Cæsar led two expeditions into Britain. The first of these took place fifty-five years before the birth of Christ.

Cæsar's
Invasions
of Britain.

But Cæsar did not bring enough soldiers with him, and soon found it wise to go back to Gaul. Next year he came again with a larger army, and did not leave until he had defeated the Britons and forced them to pay tribute to Rome. Besides being a statesman and warrior, Cæsar was also a famous



writer. He wrote an account of what he saw and did in Britain which has come down to us, and from which we get our earliest full description of the land and the people. Before this time we can only guess what happened from digging up the tombs and other remains of the peoples dwelling in our islands. From Cæsar's invasions onwards we have some sort of written story of British history.

8 Britain before the English Conquest [A.D. 43-

7. For nearly a hundred years after Cæsar's invasions the Britons were left to themselves. It was a famous time in the world's history, for during those years the great Roman Empire, which Cæsar had founded, became firmly established, so that the world was now ruled by Roman emperors. Moreover, in those same years, Jesus Christ lived and was crucified and the Christian religion began, though as yet very few people believed in it or had even heard of it. During

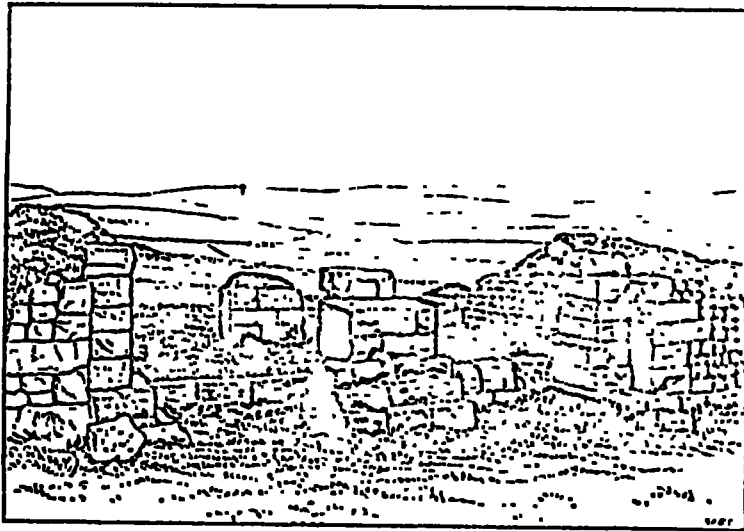
The Roman
Conquest of
South
Britain.



Roman Soldiers crossing a River on a Bridge of Boats.

this period the Romans forgot all about the Britons, and the Britons once more became bold enough to help the Gauls against the Romans. Accordingly the Romans thought it best to turn Britain into a Roman province, ruled by a Roman governor. Forty-three years after the birth of our Lord, the Roman emperor *Claudius* sent an army to Britain and ordered it to conquer the land. But the Britons fought very bravely, and in the end the Romans were satisfied with winning for themselves the southern part of the island. They built a rampart of earth between the Firths of Forth and Clyde, which marked

the northern limit of their power. Beyond it, among the high hills of what we now call the Scottish Highlands, the Celts still remained free. These northern Celts were now styled the *Caledonians*, and their land Caledonia. Later they were called *Picts*, which some have thought to mean the painted people, because, unlike their southern neighbours, they wore few clothes, but painted their bodies with bright colours. As time went on, the Romans gave up any



A Portion of the Roman Wall.
(Showing the West Gateway of Boreviens, a Roman Station,
now Housesteads in South-west Northumberland.)

attempt to hold the northern part of their conquest. They fell back upon an earlier boundary wall running from the Solway, near Carlisle, to the mouth of the Tyne, below Newcastle. This wall was very solidly built of stone, and you can still see in the wild moorlands of Northumberland long stretches of this great monument of Roman skill and power.

8. Roman rule in southern Britain lasted for more than three hundred years. It brought much good to the land but also some little evil. The Romans

gave the Britons such sound peace and strong rule as they had never enjoyed before. The Romans covered

Roman rule in South Britain. Britain with fair cities and pleasant country-houses. They fenced around their fortresses with strong walls of brick and stone,

and planned hard, smooth roads to connect together the different parts of the country. So well were these roads made that they still remained the chief means of communication, hundreds of years after the Romans had left the land. The Romans encouraged trade, opened out mines and fisheries, planted fruit-trees and vines, drained the marshes and cut down the dense forests. They grew so much corn that Britain was called the granary of Europe. They persuaded the British chiefs to learn the Roman or *Latin* tongue and the polished ways of Roman life.

9. Towards the end of their rule in Britain, the Romans had nearly all become Christians. They brought the new faith into Britain, and before long there was a British Church, with its own bishops and priests, which soon put an end to the worship of the many gods in which the Britons had once believed.

Roman Britain and Ireland become Christian. From this British Church the Welsh Church of to-day has sprung. From its missionaries sent to proclaim the glad tidings outside the Roman province, the Irish Church traces its origin. The most famous of the teachers who brought over the Irish to the new religion was the Briton *Patrick*, whom Irishmen still revere as their patron saint. Thus the Irish, though never conquered by the Romans, received from Roman Britain their first instruction in the faith of Christ.

10. The Romans never settled in large numbers in Britain, and the Britons went on talking their old tongue and following their ancient customs. But as years rolled by, the Britons forgot the old habit of fighting, and their old way of ruling the land. This

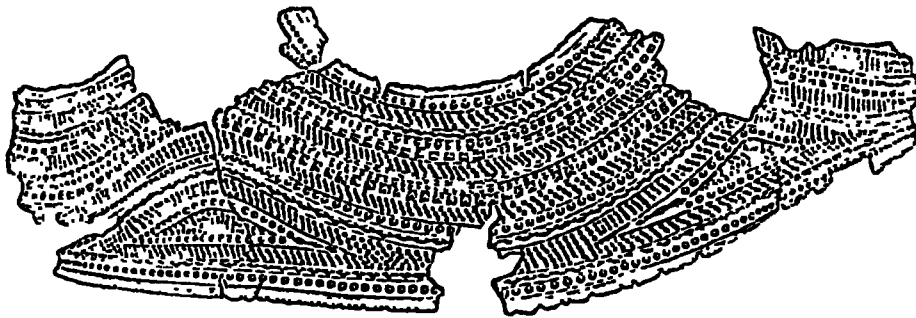


proved a great trouble to them when the Romans at last found that they could govern the Britons no longer.

The end of Roman power in Britain. But fierce wandering tribes were plundering and devastating the very heart of the Roman Empire, and the Romans wanted all their soldiers to save Italy itself from attack.

Accordingly, in 410, they entirely withdrew their troops from Britain, telling the Britons that henceforth they must defend themselves as best they might.

11. Thus the Britons were once more free; but they did not long enjoy their liberty. They were attacked on every side by brave and savage enemies. From the west came the Celts, living in Ireland; but in those days the Irish were generally called the *Scots*. From the north came the *Caledonians* or *Picts*, who plundered Britain from end to end. More terrible still



British Gold Ornament.
(From the Original in the British Museum.)

were the swarms of fierce pirates who came from northern Germany. The Britons fought bravely against all these invaders; but they did not act together, and had few good leaders. Bit by bit they were forced to give way. Before long both the foes from the west and from the east began to establish new homes for themselves in Britain. The Scots settled in the north-west, and the Germans in the

south-east. From the arrival of these invaders begins a new period of British history.

12. Up to this point we have had to do only with the history of Britain. But different parts of the island of Britain now begin to get separate names of their own. These names are now so familiar to us that it is hard to remember sometimes that there was a period when they did not exist. It was now that the Scots from Ireland gave to parts of northern Britain the new name of *Scotland*, or land of the *Scots*. And the Germans, who settled in the south, were called the *English*, and from them southern Britain began to be called *England*, or the land of the English. Moreover, the English called the Britons the *Welsh*, and the land they lived in *Wales*. Nowadays we all know that Britain is divided into England, Scotland, and Wales. This division first begins when, side by side with the ancient Britons or Welsh, the Scots and English first made their homes in our land. But the England, Scotland, and Wales of those days were quite different in size and boundaries from those of later times. It took a very long time before the three peoples, the English, the Scots, and the Welsh, settled down side by side into something like their present homes.

The
beginnings
of England,
Scotland,
and Wales.

CHAPTER II

How the English came to Britain, and how they became Christians, 449-668

Principal Persons :

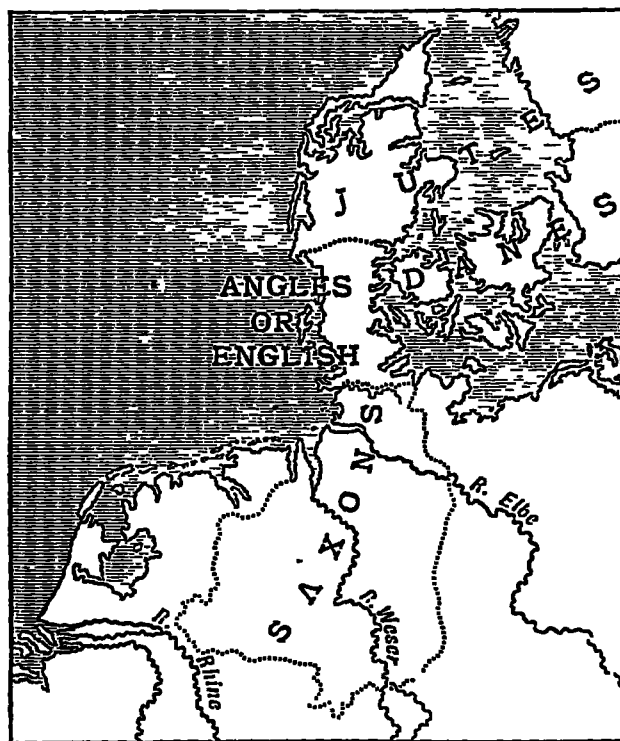
Hengist and Horsa; Kenneth MacAlpine, King of Scots; Pope Gregory the Great; Ethelbert, King of Kent; St. Augustine, Archbishop of Canterbury; Edwin, King of Northumbria; Paulinus, Archbishop of York; Penda, King of Mercia; Oswald, King of Northumbria; Theodore of Tarsus, Archbishop of Canterbury.

Principal Dates :

- 449. Landing of Hengist and Horsa.
- 597. Landing of St. Augustine.
- 627. Conversion of Edwin.
- 655. Penda slain in battle.
- 668. Theodore of Tarsus made Archbishop of Canterbury.

1. Before they came to Britain the English had lived in North Germany, along the coast of the North Sea, and on the banks of the river Elbe. They
Who were the English? were divided into three main tribes, called the *Jutes*, the *Saxons*, and the *Angles*. All of these took part in the conquest of Britain. At first there was no common name for all three groups of peoples. But gradually they began to find it necessary to call each other by a single name, and they took the name of *English*. This is really only another form of the word *Angle*, but it was now used in this wider sense, since the *Angles* or *English* took the most important part in the conquest of Britain. But the *Welsh* or *Britons* more usually called their enemies by the common name of *Saxons*. Sometimes, too, they

are styled the *Anglo-Saxons*, which means the race formed by the union of the Angles and Saxons. But whether we call them English, Saxons, or Anglo-Saxons, we must never forget that they are the forefathers of most modern Englishmen, though not by any means of all Englishmen, since as time went on many men of British and Scottish blood gave up speaking



The old Homes of the English.

their old Celtic tongue, and talked and lived like Englishmen. Thus it is nowadays that all people in southern Britain, except the Welsh, talk the English language, whether they are sprung from the British or the old English. For the tongue which the new-comers brought into the land was called English from the first. It is from this tongue that the English which is spoken to-day has grown, though the language is very different

from the one which the Anglo-Saxons or old-English used to speak.

2. The first English to settle in Britain were the Jutes, whose chieftains, *Hengist* and *Horsa*, set up in

449 the kingdom of Kent, which is much
The English Conquest of South Britain. the same as the modern county of *Kent*.
The little Jutish kingdom was soon sur-

rounded by Saxon settlements, whose names live on in the modern counties of south-eastern England. Thus *Essex* was once the kingdom of the East Saxons, *Middlesex* that of the Middle Saxons, and *Sussex* that of the South Saxons. Much more important, however, than these was the great Saxon kingdom of the West Saxons, or *Wessex*, which, beginning either in Hampshire, or in the upper Thames valley, gradually spread over all Southern England.

3. To the north of the Saxon settlements came the Angles, or English in the narrower sense, who also set up many little states. Three of these Anglian states lasted longer and were more important than the others. One of these was *East Anglia*, the land of the East Angles or East English, including Norfolk (the North folk) and Suffolk (the South folk). In the lands between the Trent and the Thames, the great kingdom of *Mercia*, inhabited by the Mercians, stretched from the borders of East Anglia to the river Severn. Mercia means the *March* or the boundary district between the English and Welsh, but in those days this boundary was formed by the hills that separate the upper Trent from the Severn. To its north lay the kingdom of *Northumbria*, which took in all the lands between the Firth of Forth and the Humber.

4. In the western parts of South Britain the Welsh still held their own. There were three groups of Welsh states. In the north was *Cumberland*, or the land of the *Strathclyde* Welsh. This ran from the

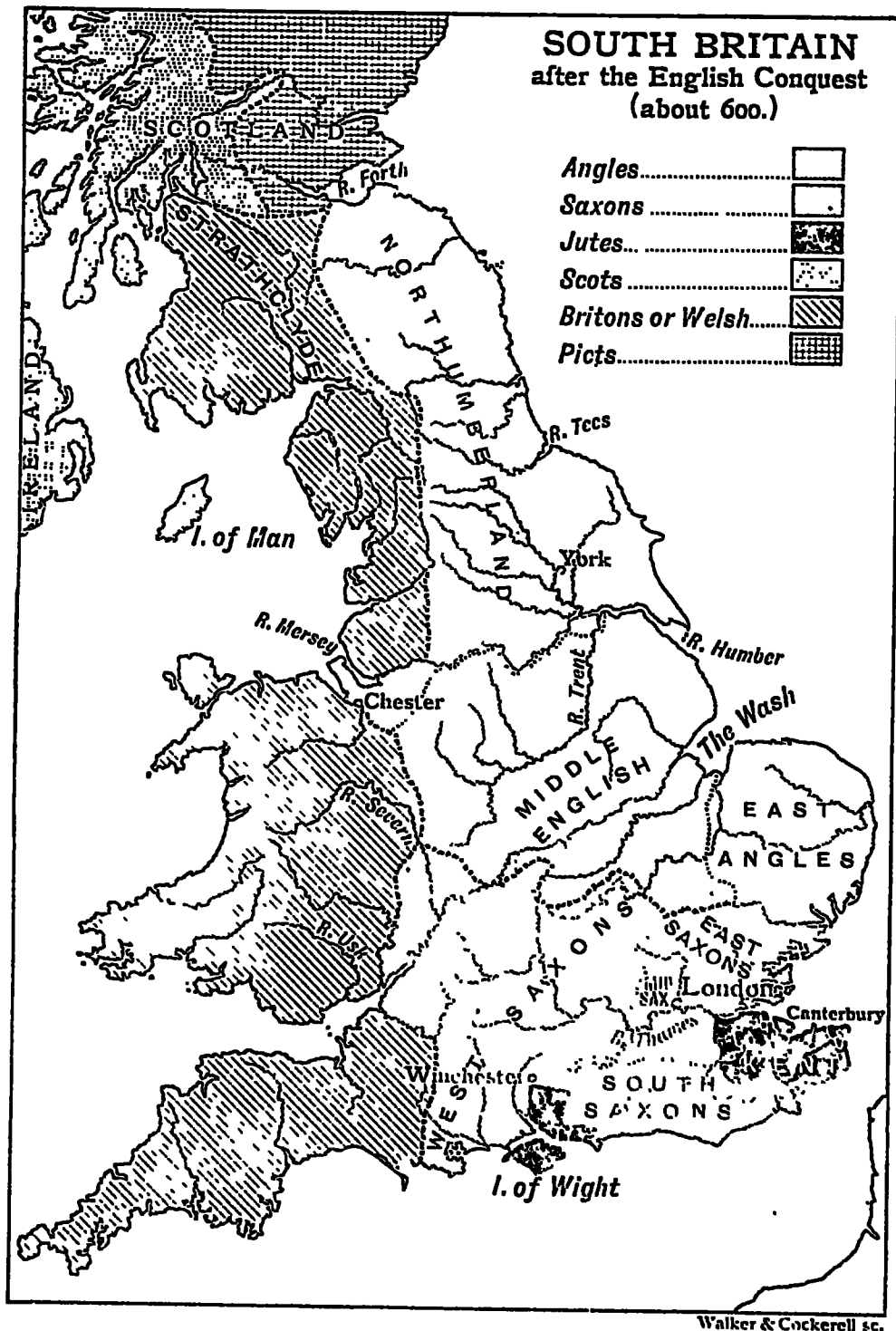
strath or valley of the river Clyde southwards to the river Mersey, and was cut off from Northumbria by the wild moorlands of the Pennine chain. South of the Mersey, Northumbria just reached to the Irish Sea, cutting off the Welsh of Cumberland from the Welsh of the district west of the Severn, parts of which are still called *Wales*. But the Wales of those days went much farther east than it does now. Moreover, south of the Bristol Channel lived the *West Welsh* in Devon and Cornwall, who in their turn were cut off from the Welsh of Wales by the West Saxons conquering Somerset and the lands on the lower Severn. Thus the Welsh were split up by the English advance into three different districts separated from each other. In this way also was the old Roman province of Britain divided between the Welsh, who dwelt in the western portion, and the English, who, having conquered the east, were constantly pressing their enemies farther back in the west. Only their wild hills and barren moors enabled the Welsh to hold their own.

The Welsh
kingdoms.

5. Beyond the Forth and the Clyde changes were also taking place. The Scots had, as we have seen, settled in the western islands and Highlands. They gradually encroached upon their Pictish neighbours, and, about four hundred years after this, a King of Scots became King of the Picts as well. The name of this king was *Kenneth Mac-Alpine*, and he died in 860. After this Scotland and Pictland remained united under a single king. From the days of Kenneth the lands north of Forth and Clyde bore the name of Scotland, and the Picts disappear from history.

The Picts
and the
Scots.

6. It took nearly one hundred and fifty years for the English to complete their conquest of south-eastern Britain. But they did their work very thoroughly. If any Britons remained in the English lands they



remained as slaves, or were gradually forced to speak English and follow the English fashions. It was only in the west, where the English came later, that very many of the Britons lived on after the English Conquest. And in this long struggle most of the cities and great works left behind by the Romans were destroyed. For the English, like the Britons before the coming of the Romans, had no love for dwelling in towns, and little care for the arts of peace. They were, when not fighting, a pastoral and farming people, dwelling in scattered homesteads over the countryside. They conquered the Britons, not because they were braver, but because they were fiercer, stronger, and more persevering than their enemies. They had not been softened, like the Britons, by Roman civilisation.

Results of
the English
Conquest.

7. Each little English kingdom cared only for itself, and before long there were as many wars between the various English states as there were between English and Welsh. But some good resulted from those struggles, since the fiercer kings conquered the weaker, and so gradually cut down the number of little states into which the land had been split up. Sometimes one kingdom conquered another outright. More often, however, it was content with forcing the weaker state to bow down before it and acknowledge its supremacy. Thus the stronger kings became *overlords* over their feebler neighbours. Among the first kings who exercised such authority was *Ethelbert*, King of Kent, who reigned in that kingdom about a hundred and fifty years after the coming of Hengist and Horsa. We must remember the name of King Ethelbert, since it was during his rule that the first attempts were made to win over the fierce English to the Christian faith.

The first
English
Overlords.

8. The English who came to Britain were heathens, worshipping the old gods of the Germans, such as

Woden and *Thor*. The Welsh still remained Christians from Roman times, but as they were driven westward into the hills, the English stamped out nearly all traces of the Christian faith in eastern and southern Britain. Even after one hundred and fifty years of struggle, the Welsh and English hated each other so bitterly and were fighting so constantly that there was little chance of the English learning of the Christian faith from their enemies' lips. But it happened that a very good and able man held the office of Bishop of Rome in the days when Ethelbert was King of Kent. Now the Bishop of Rome was looked upon as the first and greatest of all the bishops and as the head of the Catholic Church. He was generally called the *Pope*, that is, the father. This good Pope's name was *Gregory*, and he was afterwards called Gregory the Great. Long before he had become Pope, he had been struck with the bright, fair faces of some English slave children standing for sale in the market at Rome. He asked to what nation they belonged, and was told that they were Angles. 'Say rather,' he replied, 'that they have the faces of Angels.' When further told that they were heathens and that their king was called *Ælla*, he went on with his pious puns, saying that Alleluia must soon be sung in *Ælla's* land. From that time he became eager that the land of Britain, which had once been inhabited by a Christian people, should again be brought back to the faith of Christ.

9. After he became Pope, Gregory carried out his wish. He sent his friend, the monk *Augustine*, and a band of monks to preach the gospel to the English heathens. In 597 Augustine and his followers landed in Kent, and were well received by King Ethelbert. Before long Ethelbert and most of his people were baptized into the Christian faith. Augustine was made Archbishop of the English Church, and taking

up his residence at Canterbury, the royal city of the Kentish kings, he became the first Archbishop of Canterbury. This see is still the chief bishopric of England, and owes its position to the fact that the first English king to turn Christian was the King of Kent.

The landing of St. Augustine.

10. Augustine and his monks proved zealous missionaries, and soon won not only Kent but the neighbouring kingdom of Essex and Middlesex to the Christian faith. Here Augustine set up one of his followers as the first Bishop of London.

The Conversion of Edwin.

However, here his success ended. He failed to win over all the English to the new doctrine, and it cost long and severe struggles before Christianity became the religion of the whole land. The next great step forwards was in 627, when *Edwin*, King of the Northumbrians, who had married Ethelbert's daughter, went over to his wife's faith, and made *Paulinus*, who had gone from Kent to the north as her chaplain, the first Archbishop of York, the capital of Northumbria. This was the more important since Edwin was now the strongest of all the English kings, having more than succeeded to the power of Ethelbert.

11. Many of the English clung stoutly to their old gods. They despised the weakness and humility which the Christians professed, and had rather worship the grim old deities that delighted in battle, slaughter, and revenge. A leader for the lovers of old ways arose in *Penda*,

The struggle between Christianity and the old religion.

King of the Mercians, a mighty warrior who had conquered all the Midlands, and was jealous of the power of Edwin, as well as of the new faith. The Welsh were so afraid of Edwin, that, Christians as they were, they did not hesitate to join with the heathen *Penda* in waging war against the Northumbrian king. At last the Mercians and Welsh slew Edwin in battle, and *Paulinus* was driven back to Kent. For the

moment it looked as if Christianity were likely to be blotted out. But before long the Northumbrians found another Christian king in *Oswald*, who had learned the faith in the great monastery of *Iona*, built by Irish monks in the little island of that name off the western coast of Scotland. Though Penda fought hard against Oswald and finally slew him, he could never succeed in rooting out the Christian faith. Before the end of his reign Penda was forced to confess himself beaten and allow the missionaries to preach the gospel, even in his own land of Mercia. In 655 Penda was slain by the Northumbrians in battle, and thereupon Mercia itself became Christian.

12. After a struggle of over fifty years the wish of Pope Gregory had been granted. But it still took

The work of Theodore of Tarsus. some time before the Christian religion was firmly established in the land. Many of the English learned the faith not from Roman missionaries like Augustine, but from Irish or Scottish monks, whose ways of worshipping were not exactly the same as those of the Roman Church. A new Archbishop of Canterbury was sent in 668 from Rome to bring order into the Church of the English. This was a Greek named *Theodore of Tarsus*, who deserves to be remembered as the first really great ruler of the English Church. Through Theodore's care the Church was reformed and brought into obedience and unity under the see of Canterbury. The special customs of the Scots were gradually given up, and all the dwellers in Britain were at last bound together by the fact of their common Christian faith.

13. It was a long time before the change of creed really changed the savage old ways of the English. In the long run, however, Christianity made them much more gentle and civilised. For example, in their later wars with the Welsh, they do not seem any longer to have butchered their

The monks and their work.

enemies so freely as they did before. And the fierce warrior was no longer the only sort of Englishman. Wherever the Christian faith spread, there were found men and women who grew weary of the violence and bloodshed they saw everywhere around them. They had not much hope of making the world as a whole any better, so they withdrew as much as they could from it. They entered into houses called *Monasteries*, where they could live together with others like minded with themselves, and devote their lives to prayer, study, and pious works. They took vows not to marry, not to hold money or lands, and to obey the abbot or head of the monastery. Those living this life were called *monks*, if men, and *nuns*, if women. It was from monks such as Augustine that England first learned the Christian faith. Now that it had accepted that faith, the best and gentlest of the English became monks and nuns. It was through the labours of these monks that we get the first English history, the first English art, and much of the earliest English poetry. For nearly a thousand years after the coming of Augustine, a great number of monks and nuns were always to be found in English monasteries, which steadily grew in numbers and importance. And long before there were English monks at all, Celtic monks had done magnificent work for religion and civilisation in western and northern Britain and in Ireland. These Celtic monks sent their missions not only to England, but to the Continent also. The English owed them a debt as great as that which they owed to the holy men whom Gregory sent with Augustine to win them to Christ.

CHAPTER III

How the West Saxon Kings became Lords of all England, and how the Danes settled in the Land, 626-899

Principal Persons :

Offa, King of Mercia ; Egbert, King of Wessex ; Ethelwulf, King of Wessex ; Alfred the Great, King of Wessex ; Guthrum, the Dane.

Principal Dates :

626-685. Northumbrian Overlordship.

716-821. Mercian Overlordship.

825-871. West Saxon Overlordship.

871. Great Danish Invasion and Accession of Alfred.

878. Treaty of Chippenham restores the West Saxon Overlordship.

899. Death of Alfred the Great.

1. Nowadays we know that the British islands form a single country, with one king, one government, one parliament, and one army and navy. But How the British Islands became a single state. not very long ago things were quite different. It is not so very far back that Ireland, Scotland, and Wales were thus joined together with England. And if we go back still further we shall find that there once was a time when England itself was ruled by many kings, and broken up into many little states. It is now our business to trace the steps by which the petty kingdoms into which England was once divided were bit by bit united into a single state, ruled by a single king. When our history has come nearer our own

days, we shall also have to see how in turn Scotland, Wales, and Ireland were gradually joined to this single English state to form our present United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

2. We have already learned how, when the English first came to Britain, they set up many little kingdoms. We have also seen how, almost from the beginning, these little kingdoms began to conquer each other, and how the stronger ones made themselves masters over the weaker ones. Thus Ethelbert of Kent was overlord over many English states. His son-in-law, Edwin of Northumbria, made himself even more powerful. Though Penda and his Mercians twice overthrew the Northumbrian kings, the successors of Edwin triumphed in the end. Thus it was that the seventh century after Christ, which saw the establishment of the Christian faith among the English, also saw the setting up of what was called the *Northumbrian Overlordship*. The Northumbrian kings owed much of their influence to the support of the Church which they had done so much to uphold. But they were also strong men and clever soldiers, so that they could put down by arms any other state that rose up in revolt against them. As long as wise kings remained rulers of Northumbria their overlordship continued. But, after 685, weak princes arose in the north, and then power passed away from Northumbria.

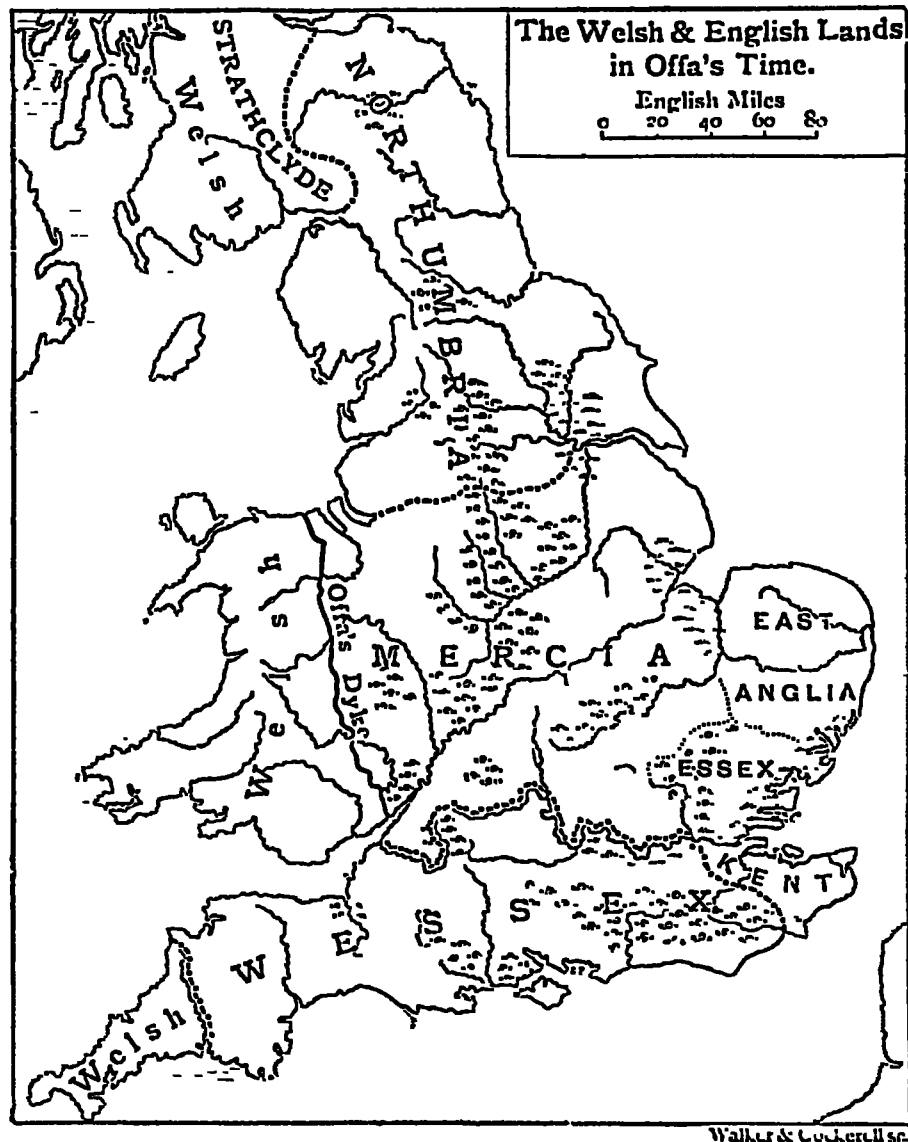
The Northumbrian Overlordship.

3. There were only two other English states big enough to step into Northumbria's place. The little kingdoms like Kent and Essex had already been swallowed up by their greater neighbours. Just as Northumbria ruled all the north, so did Mercia rule all the Midlands, and Wessex all the southern parts of England. After the fall of Northumbria, *Mercia* became the chief English state, and its kings were overlords over

The Mercian Overlordship.

26 How the West Saxon Kings became [825-

all England for the whole of the eighth century. The most famous of the Mercian rulers of this time was *Offa the Mighty*, who extended his power beyond the



Severn, and dug a great trench from sea to sea so as to separate his Mercian kingdom from his Welsh neighbours. We can still see parts of this trench which is still called *Offa's dyke*. But after

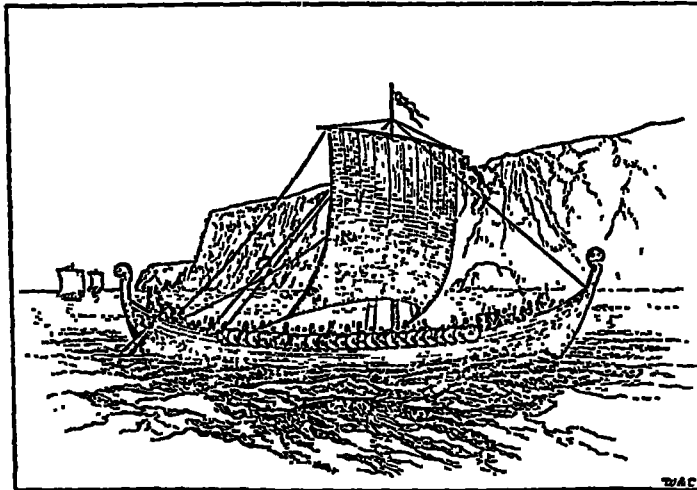
Offa's death Mercia became weak like Northumbria, and power passed still farther southwards to Wessex.

4. The first West Saxon king to be overlord was Egbert, who won a battle over the Mercians in 825 and forced them to acknowledge him as overlord. He handed on power to his son, the pious and gentle Ethelwulf. But during the reign of this king a new trouble burst upon England, and threatened to undo all the good that kings like Offa and Egbert had worked. This was the coming of the Danes, or Norsemen.

The West
Saxon Over-
lordship.

5. The *Danes* and *Norsemen* lived in the extreme north of Europe, in Denmark and Norway. (See Map on p. 34.) They were now much in the same condition as that in which the English had been when they crossed over from North Germany to southern Britain. They were fierce war-

The Coming
of the Danes.



A Danish Ship (a reconstruction).

riors, obstinate heathens, very brave and hardy, but also very greedy and cruel. They were splendid sailors, and finding that their own poor and cold lands could not support them all in comfort, they formed the habit of setting forth every summer in their long,

narrow, undecked ships to plunder the richer and sunnier lands of the south. In the winter they went home to their own land and revelled on their spoils. They filled all Europe with their expeditions, and spread terror far and wide. The weak king Ethelwulf was unable to withstand such fierce enemies. They came to and from England whenever they chose, and at last they found that the land was not only a good field for plunder but an attractive place for settlement. Henceforth they changed their object, and like the English four hundred years earlier, they strove to set up new homes for themselves in our island. It seemed as if the English were now going to suffer the fate they had themselves once inflicted on the Welsh.

6. Ethelwulf was already dead when the Danes began to make settlements in England. During the reigns of his four sons, who succeeded one after the other to the West Saxon throne, the Danes conquered Northumbria, East Anglia, and Mercia, and at last invaded Wessex itself. But they found their match in the famous *Alfred*, the youngest of Ethelwulf's sons, who became King of the West Saxons in 871, at the very moment when the heathens were plundering and devastating the land. The young king withstood the invaders with all his strength. But they pressed him so hard that he was forced for a time to abandon his kingdom and hide in the marshes of *Athelney* in Somerset. He soon, however, came out of his hiding-place, and rallying his countrymen round him, won a great victory over *Guthrum*, the Danish leader.

7. In 878 Alfred and Guthrum made a treaty at *Chippenham*, in which they agreed to divide England between them. This agreement is often called *the Treaty of Wedmore*, from a place in Somerset, where Alfred and Guthrum held further meetings a short

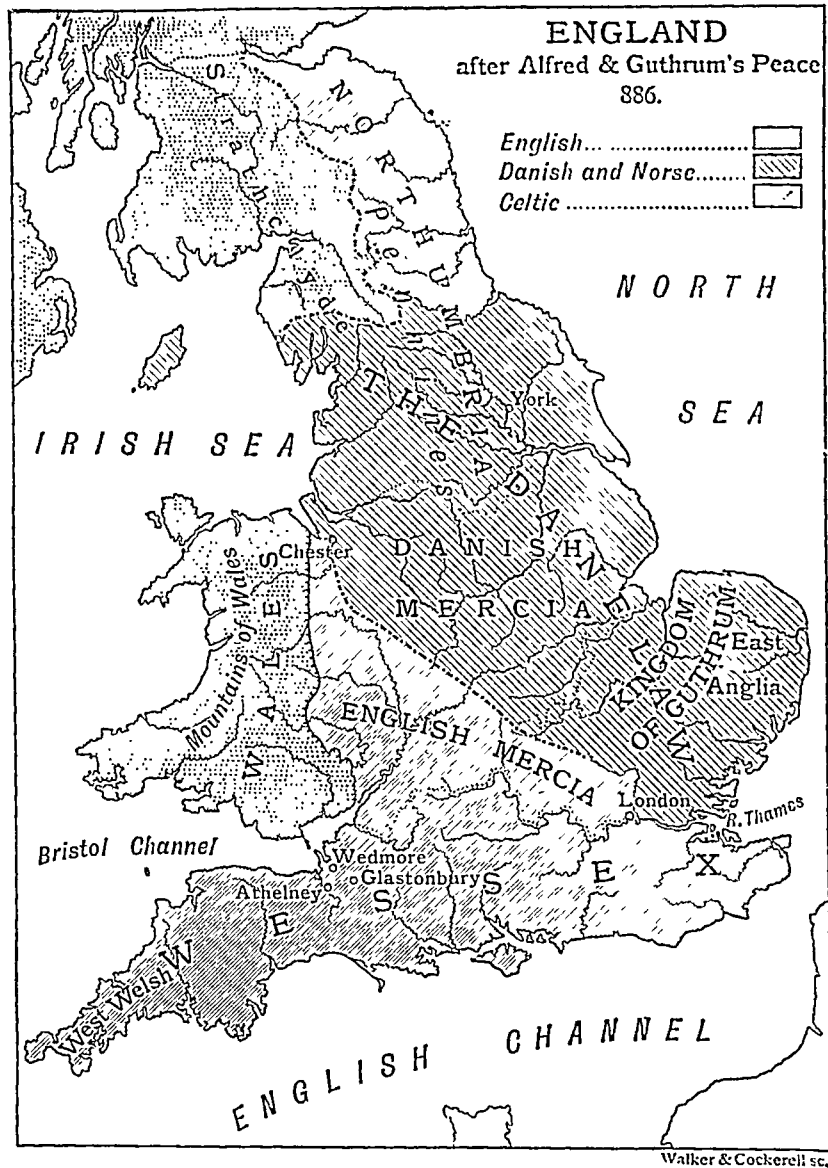
time afterwards. In a few years war broke out again. But Alfred won fresh battles over the Danes, and in 886 forced them to make a second treaty by which he secured still better terms for the English. After this second treaty London became part of Alfred's dominions. We do

Alfred's
treaties
with
Guthrum.

not exactly know where the dividing line between English and Danes ran, but it is often thought that it was drawn from Chester to London, following for the most part the old Roman road called the Watling Street. Thus it cut England into two halves. North of the line the Danes were to govern as they pleased, but south of it Alfred and his West Saxons were to rule. Moreover, the Danes promised to become Christians, and with their new faith they gradually put off their fierceness and cruelty. There were not perhaps very many of them, so that there was no need for them to drive away all the English from the parts of England over which they bore rule. But they divided the lands among themselves, and forced the English to work for them, and governed them according to the Danish law. For this reason the parts of England north of Alfred's line were called the *Dane law*.

8. The Danes were not very different from the English in tongue and manners. Before long in the North and Midlands ruling Danes and conquered English were fused into a single people, speaking the English language, and differing only from the more sluggish Southerners by keeping a little of the fierceness and energy of the Danish pirates. You can still tell what parts of England were settled by the Danes by noticing in a map the districts where the word 'by' occurs as an ending of place-names. 'By' in Danish meant a village, a word which in English was expressed by 'ton,' or 'town.' If you see, for instance,

The Dane
law and
Alfred's
kingdom.



a place called Kirkby or Kirby, you know that it was situated in the Dane law. In the English parts of the land it would have been called Kirkton or Churchtown. All these words mean a village with a church.

9. By concluding his final peace with the Danes, Alfred saved England from destruction. But he did much more than that. He enlarged the boundaries of Wessex by taking into it the great triangle of lands between the upper Thames, Offa's Dyke, and the boundary of the Dane

How Alfred restored the West Saxon supremacy.

law. Moreover, the Danes, in their conquest of the north and east, had broken down the old kingdoms of East Anglia, Northumbria, and northern Mercia. It is true that they set up in their place a large number of petty Danish states. But each of these was so small that it was easy for Alfred to make them acknowledge his supremacy as overlord, so that the West Saxon overlordship, shaken for a time by the Danish invasions, was soon fully restored. Even the Welsh princes bowed before Alfred as their master. Alfred was so wise and prudent that he was content with being recognised as overlord. In his time, at least, the Danes were allowed to go on ruling in their Dane law under his supremacy.

10. Alfred's deeds were not merely those of a King of the West Saxons; they were those of the lord and champion of all the English race. He was, however, a modest man, and was content to call himself what his forefathers had been styled, King of the West Saxons. But, in fact, he is the first king of all the English, and the founder of that single monarchy of England which had thus at last grown up out of the earlier temporary overlordships. Before Alfred's days there was every chance that the West Saxon overlordship would come to an end like the earlier supremacies of the Northumbrians and Mercians. It was due to Alfred's skill and courage that it became permanent, so that the

English kingship grew gradually out of it. Alfred's son, Edward the Elder, saw this so clearly that he dropped his father's title and called himself King of all the English. The blood of Alfred has run in the veins of nearly all the later English kings and queens, and *King George V.* is one of his descendants. English folk must then particularly reverence King Alfred, who more than a thousand years ago first gave the English nation their union under a single king.

How Alfred prepared the way for English unity.

11. Having partitioned the land with Guthrum and his followers, Alfred took good care to prevent the Danes from giving him any trouble in the future. He set on foot a new sort of army, so that if the Danes came once more into the land, they might find the English ready to meet them. But he was not content to wait until the Danes had actually landed in England. He built fine ships, strong and swift enough to meet the Danish fleets on the sea, and so to save his country from the miseries of invasion. Alfred's navy made him the first founder of the greatness of England at sea, of which she is still so proud. It is curious that before his time the English had quite forgotten that in the old days of the migration their forefathers had been seamen as bold and hardy as the Danes themselves. But after Alfred's reign they never quite put this out of mind. And though evil times came when Alfred's navy was forgotten, it at least served its turn in frightening off fresh Danish invaders. Though there was plenty of fighting between Alfred's successors and the Danes, it was no longer a struggle between men dwelling in the land and foreign invaders. The Danes now fought against were the Danish settlers in England, and as time went on these became Englishmen.

12. Alfred was certainly the best soldier and the

best sailor that England had hitherto seen. But there were so many hard-fighting warriors in those days, that men would not remember Alfred so well or love him so much if he had been simply a soldier, like so many other kings. It was his special glory that he was as wise as a statesman as he was brave as a warrior. He looked so carefully after his subjects' welfare that

Why Alfred was called Alfred the Great.

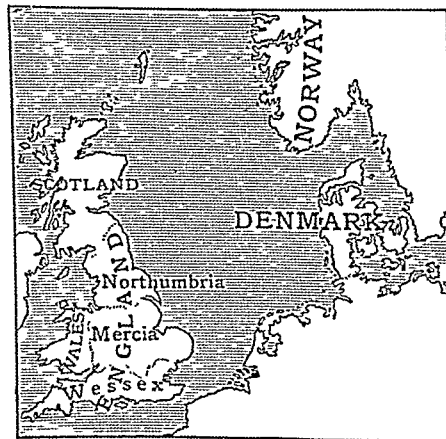
ARE YLDRAN·EALNE
 ÐYSENE·YMB·HYRFT
 ÐYSES·MYÐÐAN·GEARDES·CJÆT·OROSIUS
 spa spa oceanuſ ymbliſeð utanðone man-ſar
 ſetſe hatað·onðre to dædon·. 7 hu hſ þa þrſ dælaſ·on
 ðre to nemdon·. aſiam·. 7 eſropam·. 7 aſſricam·.
 þe a hðe ſume men ſædon·. þa þa næpan butan
 tpegen dælaſ·. aſia·. 7 þa oþer eſropa·. aſia iſ
 befangen·. mid oceanuſ þa ſar ſetſe^{be} ſu þan·. 7
 norðan·. 7 eaſtan·. 7 ſpa·ealne þyſne middan ſearw·.
 ſpā þa eaſt dæle·. hea lene be hðe; þonne on þa

Orosius's Chronicle, translated by Alfred. (British Museum, Tib. B. 17.)
 (This reproduction is rather more than half the scale of the original manuscript.)

he was able to repair the ravages wrought by the Danish invasions, and make England once more free, peaceful, and prosperous. He rebuilt the churches and monasteries which the Danes had destroyed, and strove his best to fill them with pious priests and monks who might teach his people knowledge of better things. He loved learning, and delighted to summon to his court learned men. He set up schools, and wrote books for his people's sake. He collected

34 The West Saxon Lords of all England [899.

the old laws together into a form in which men could read and understand them more easily. He had histories written or translated to tell his people how their forefathers had lived and what they had done. And above all, his own life gave his subjects a constant example of all that was pure, noble, and saintly. As pious and learned as a monk, Alfred yet lived in the world and for the world. His hard work and self-denial are the more praiseworthy since he was constantly troubled with ill-health. He died in 899, when still in the prime of life. By after ages he was called Alfred the Great, and few kings in history have a better right to that honourable name.



Walker & Cockerell sc.

The Old Homes of the Norsemen.

CHAPTER IV

How England became one Kingdom, and how it was Conquered by the Danes, 899-1042

Principal Persons :

Edward the Elder, first King of the English ; Edgar the Peaceful, Lord of all Britain ; St. Dunstan, Archbishop of Canterbury ; King Ethelred the Unready ; Swegen, King of the Danes ; King Edmund Ironside ; King Cnut.

Principal Dates :

- 899-924. Reign of Edward the Elder.
- 959-975. Reign of Edgar the Peaceful.
- 960. Dunstan made Archbishop of Canterbury.
- 978-1016. Reign of Ethelred the Unready.
- 1016. Struggle of Edmund Ironside and Cnut.
- 1017-1035. Reign of Cnut.
- 1035-1042. Reigns of Harold Harefoot and Harthacnut.

1. Alfred had made a good beginning towards the unity of England. His successors were able to reap the full fruits of his victories. They were not so good or so wise as Alfred himself had been. But they were all famous warriors, and in those fierce, rough days no king could be successful unless he was a hard fighter. For more than fifty years England went on prospering. The Dane law was reconquered, and Alfred's successors were not content to be merely overlords. *Edward the Elder*, Alfred's valiant son, who reigned from 899 to 924, dropped, as we have seen, the title of King of the West Saxons, and called him-

Edward the Elder, first King of all the English, and his sons.

self King of the English. Before long even this title was not good enough for the house of Alfred. Edward's son and successor, *Athelstan*, who reigned from 924-939, was even a mightier soldier than his father. Under his two brothers, *Edmund* (940-946) and *Edred* (946-955), who successively succeeded him to the throne, the English kings still further increased in power. Not only were all the English and Danes ruled by them, but the Scots and the Welsh, and some even of the Irish acknowledged the overlordship of the English king and called him 'father and lord.' Proud that he was thus supreme over all the many kings of the island, the English monarch now began to borrow the titles of the old Roman emperors. He sometimes called himself Emperor of Britain. The whole of our islands had at last one master.

2. On Edred's death, his nephew *Edwy* (955-959) became king. Under Edwy, a sickly boy, there was a decline of prosperity. But on his early death his throne was filled by the most famous of the successors of Alfred, Edwy's brother, *Edgar the Peaceful*, who reigned from 959 to 975. A story is told how
 The reign of Edgar the Peaceful. when Edgar visited Chester he was rowed down the Dee by eight Scottish and Welsh under-kings, who thus recognised his supremacy. But the greatest proof of his power was that during the sixteen years of his rule he kept England at peace. In no previous time in our history had there been so many years of tranquillity.

3. Not all the prosperity of Edgar's reign was due to the king. Edgar had the good fortune to have as his chief minister the monk *Dunstan*. Dunstan
 Archbishop Dunstan. was the first of our great statesmen who was not himself a king. He began life as a monk of the abbey of Glastonbury in Somerset, and early rose to be abbot or head of that house. He was soon called away from his peaceful home to

help in ruling the kingdom. Under Edwy he was driven into banishment. Finally, King Edgar recalled him, and made him Archbishop of Canterbury, so that he was the chief man, both in the English Church and in the English State. It was largely through the prudence and wisdom of Dunstan that every part of England recognised Edgar as king. Dunstan found that some of the West Saxon nobles wished to rule harshly over Mercians, Northumbrians, and Danes. He therefore took pains to secure that every man should have his rights, and that no single part of the country should be supreme over any other part. It was through Dunstan's wise policy that the Dane law was allowed to keep many of its peculiar customs after it had been conquered by the English kings. He saw that unity could best be got by not laying too much stress on uniformity. Our forefathers were very much attached to their own neighbourhood and their own local customs. It was only by letting them live after the fashion that they liked best that they could be taught to grow proud of the name of Englishman.

4. Statesman as he was, Dunstan never forgot that he was a monk and a bishop. During the long struggle with the Danes the religious life of England had waxed very cold, and though Alfred had done much to revive it, his work had not extended to the Dane law, where there was most need for reform. During Dunstan's rule a great religious revival broke out in England. This led to a great increase of the number of monks and monasteries in the country. Dunstan favoured this movement, because he thought that monks lived the highest sort of life, and that if there were more monks there would be more religion and learning. He therefore both set the old monasteries in order, and encouraged the building of new ones. He took care, also, to

The
Monastic
Movement.

encourage learning and study. Under his guidance the monks read and wrote books. He built organs, adorned churches with ornamental metal work and beautiful carvings. Thus he did as much good for his country as a churchman as he did as a statesman.

5. Everything went well as long as Edgar was king and Dunstan was his minister. But terrible times began after Edgar's early death in 975. He left two sons, who reigned one after the other. But the first, *Edward the Martyr* (975-978), was soon murdered, and the second, whose name was *Ethelred* (978-1016), became king when a mere boy. All might have gone well if Dunstan had remained the ruler of the country. But the enemies of the monks now won power, and drove Dunstan away. The great archbishop spent his last years peacefully, occupied only in the government of the Church. He lived, however, long enough to know that dark days were coming for England.

6. It was almost impossible in those rough times for a land to be well ruled when its king was a child. But matters did not get better in England when *Ethelred* grew up to manhood. He was too obstinate to be a good king; and men called him *Ethelred the Unready*, because he was always without 'rede' or good counsel. Soon things fell back into a hopeless state. The land was filled with bloodshed and violence, and there was no strong king to protect his subjects or to do justice to the poor. Before long the Danes in Denmark heard how badly things were going in England. They were still eager for plunder and warfare, and soon they began once more to take ship for England and play their old game of robbery. Thus the Danish invasions, which had almost ceased since Alfred's days, were once more renewed, and there was no King Alfred now to withstand them. *Ethelred* was too much of a coward to

The reign of
Ethelred the
Unready.

The Danes
renew their
invasion.

fight, so he tried the plan of bribing the Danes to go away. He raised a tax called *Danegeld*, that is, Danes' money, and paid it over to the Danes on the condition that they would leave England. Next year they came back again. The more King Ethelred bribed them, the more eager they were to return to a land where money was to be won so easily.

7. At last Ethelred tried an even more foolish and wicked way of getting rid of his enemies. By his orders all the Danes settled in England were suddenly attacked, and as many of them as could be caught were murdered. This happened on the feast of a saint named Brice, and is therefore called the

The
Massacre of
St. Brice's
Day and the
invasion of
Swegen.

Massacre of St. Brice's Day. But such cruelty only irritated the Danes in Denmark. Before long they came to England in greater force than ever, eager to avenge their slaughtered kinsmen. Denmark, like England, had now a single king, and the Danish king's name was *Swegen*. King Swegen went to England with a great army, and soon conquered the whole land from the wretched Ethelred. After this Swegen died, but his son *Cnut* was as good a fighter as his father had been, and was also a wiser statesman. Moreover, while Swegen died a heathen, Cnut was a pious Christian. About this time the Danes of Denmark, like their brethren in England, began to accept the Christian faith.

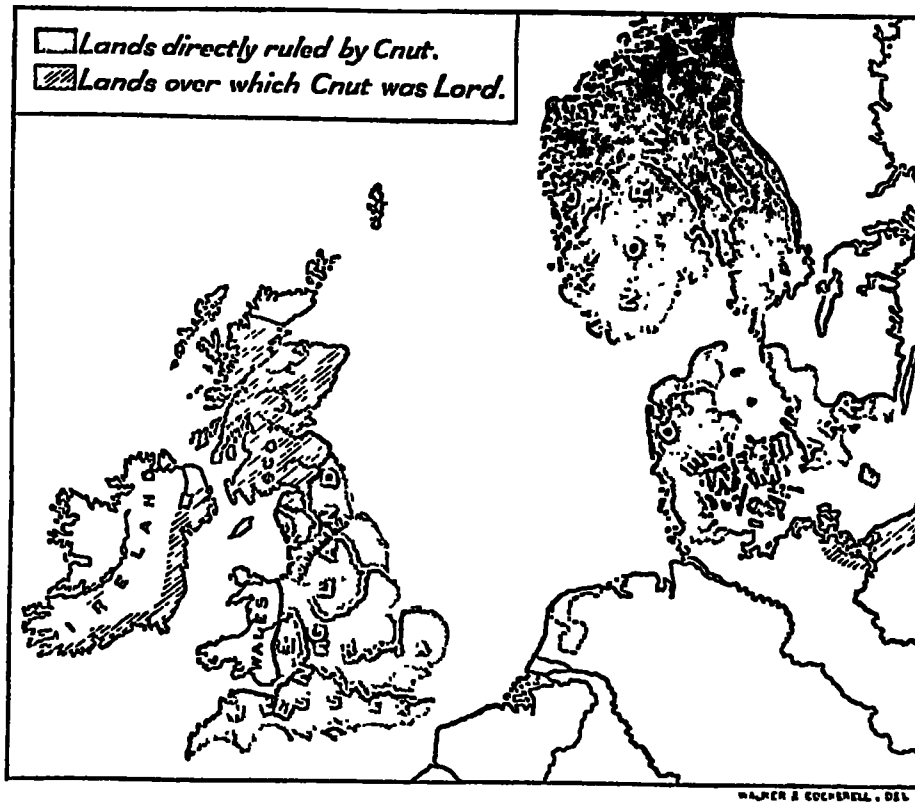
8. Cnut would soon have made himself king, only Ethelred died in 1016, and his eldest son and successor, *Edmund*, called *Ironsides* from his valour, was as brave a soldier as Cnut himself. The two kings were so evenly matched that neither could beat the other. After much hard fighting they agreed, like Alfred and Guthrum, to divide the land between them. But luckily for Cnut Edmund died in a few

The
struggle of
Cnut and
Edmund
Ironsides.

40 How the Danes conquered England [1016-

months. Thereupon all England acknowledged Cnut as its king.

9. Cnut was already King of all Denmark, and before long he also made himself King of Norway. But foreigner and conqueror though he was, he soon proved



Cnut's Dominions.
(Showing the three great Earldoms in England.)

a wise and a just King of the English. He was not only a famous warrior, but anxious to govern all his dominions well, and make them more Christian and civilised. He soon saw that the English, who had long been Christians, were better fitted to help him than his barbarous fellow-countrymen the Danes. So, though he used Danes largely to do his fighting for him, he took Englishmen into his service to rule both England and Denmark. Thus it was that his reign was a

Cnut, King
of Denmark,
Norway and
England.

period of great prosperity for England. The peaceful days of King Edgar were renewed, and Cnut, like Edgar and Dunstan, strove to revive religion and encourage the useful arts. One very famous thing Cnut did was to go on a pilgrimage to Rome, where the Pope lived, and where the burial-places of the Apostles Peter and Paul were to be seen.

10. Cnut only did one unwise thing, and that he did with a good motive. He divided his English dominions into great districts, and set over each a great officer called an *Earl*,
The Great Earldoms.
to act as the king's representative in those parts. One earl was set over Northumbria, another over Mercia, and a third over Wessex. This would have been a good thing, if the earls had remained obedient to the king. But they soon began to act as if they were kings in their own *earldoms*, without regard to the authority of their master. The result was that English unity, which Cnut had restored after the horrors of Ethelred's reign, was once more threatened. Before long the great earldoms practically revived the old kingdoms.

11. Cnut died in 1035, when still quite a young man. His two sons, *Harold Hare-*
The Sons of Cnut.
foot and *Harthacnut*, reigned badly and died early. With the death of the latter in 1042, the line of the Danish kings came to an end.

CHAPTER V

The Reigns of Edward the Confessor and Harold, 1042-1066

Principal Persons :

Edward the Confessor; Emma of Normandy, mother of Edward; William, Duke of the Normans, afterwards called William the Conqueror; Godwin, Earl of Wessex, and his sons Harold, afterwards King, and Tostig; Edwin, Earl of Mercia, and his brother Morcar, Earl of Northumbria; Edgar the Ætheling; Harold Hardrada, King of Norway.

Principal Dates :

1042-1066. Reign of Edward the Confessor.

1066. Reign of Harold. Battles of Stamford Bridge and Hastings.

1066. Christmas Day. Coronation of William the Conqueror at Westminster.

1. The greatness of the English monarchy ended with the sons of Cnut. After the death of Harthacnut in 1042, the English would have no more to do with the house of Denmark. They resolved to put away the foreign line altogether, and therefore called to the throne Edward, the son of Æthelred the Unready, and half-brother of Edmund Ironside. The new king was afterwards called Edward the Confessor and Edward the Saint, because of the holiness of his life. But though he was a good and pious man, he was weak, and better fitted to be a priest or a monk than a king. He reigned for twenty-four years, but he had not energy enough to carry out a policy of his own. He

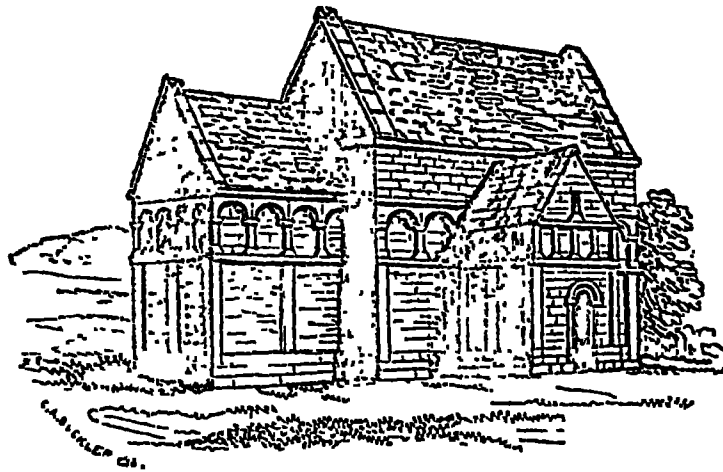
was always governed by some one stronger than himself. And his early education led him to trust men from strange lands rather than his English subjects. The result was that England, which had stubbornly resisted foreign fashions under her foreign king Cnut, seemed likely to be overruled by foreign influence as the result of the restoration of her ancient line of kings.

2. Edward's mother, Ethelred's second wife, was *Emma*, daughter of the Duke of the Normans. Edward himself had been brought up in his mother's country, and always liked the Normans and ^{The Normans in France.} their ways better than he did the English.

He had many good reasons for doing so, for the Normans were the most active, energetic, brave, and clever of all the peoples in Europe in those days. Though they were quite a young nation, they had already made themselves great and famous. Their land was *Normandy*, in the north of France, and their chief city was *Rouen*, on the Seine, where their duke lived. Normandy was not quite independent, for its dukes were the subjects of the kings of the French who reigned at Paris. But the Norman duke was almost, if not quite, as powerful as the French king, and could therefore do almost as he liked. The Normans spoke French, and followed the customs and manners of the French. But they were quite new-comers in France. Their ancestors were Danes and Norsemen, who made a settlement in the north of France a few years after Guthrum and his followers had established themselves in the English Dane law. Just as the Danes in England became like Englishmen, only fiercer and more energetic Englishmen than the older settlers in the land, so did the Northmen or Normans in France become the strongest and the most active of Frenchmen. When Edward became King of the English, his cousin William was Duke of the Normans. He was a wise and just, though hard and ambitious, ruler,

and Edward was very much influenced by him and his friends.

3. Edward invited many Normans to England, and granted them lands and high offices both in Church and The House of State. He made several Normans earls, and Godwin gave the archbishopric of Canterbury to a Norman monk. But the English hated foreigners, and particularly the pushing and energetic Normans. A great outcry against the Normans arose, and *Godwin*, Earl of the West Saxons, put himself at the head of the party opposed to them. Godwin was the strongest



Saxon Church at Bradford-on-Avon, Wilts. (

Englishman of his day, and the enormous power that he exercised showed how mighty was the position already gained by the great earls set up by Cnut. At first, however, Edward and his Normans were able to hold their own, and even drive Godwin and his sons into banishment. But next year they came back again and expelled most of the Normans. For the rest of his reign Edward was forced to give up most of his old friends, and rule according to the advice of Godwin and his family. Godwin himself soon died, but *Harold*, his eldest son, was now made Earl of the West Saxons, and soon became even more powerful than his father.

He treated Edward kindly but firmly, and took care that the land was ruled by Englishmen and not by Normans. Harold had some difficulties, however. His brother *Tostig* had been made Earl of the Northumbrians, but he governed them so badly that the Northumbrians drove him into banishment. Thereupon *Morcar*, brother of *Edwin*, Earl of Mercia, became Earl of Northumbria. Now the House of Edwin and Morcar had long been the rival of the House of Godwin and Harold. The real struggle for power lay between them. As the earls' authority grew, that of the crown became weakened. It seemed as if England were again going to split up into three states.

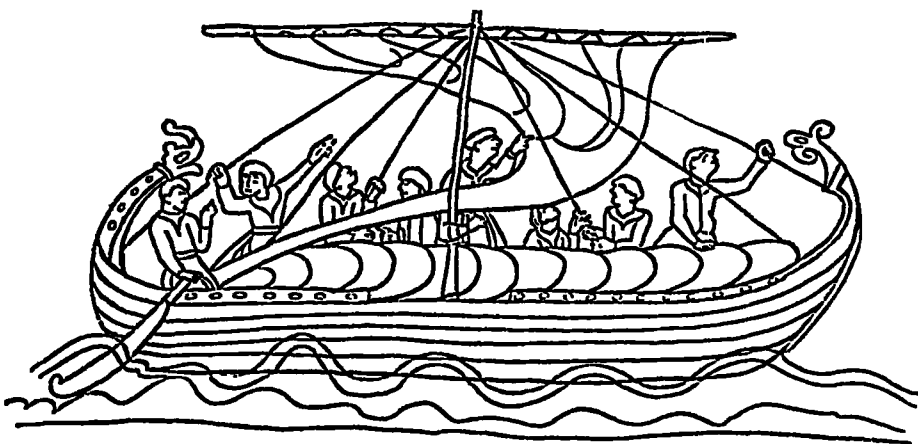
4. Edward did not trouble himself very much about the quarrels of the earls at his court. He was now breaking down in health, and his only keen desire was that, before he died, he might finish a new abbey that he was building at

The death of
Edward the
Confessor.

Westminster in honour of St. Peter the Apostle. It was the finest monastery that had yet been set up in our land, and its church was of enormous size, and stood in strong contrast to the small churches hitherto built by the English, such as the one that still survives at Bradford in Wiltshire. Moreover, it was fashioned after a new style of building that Edward now brought in from Normandy to England. The holy king just lived long enough to see his great church set apart for divine worship. A few days afterwards he died, in January 1066. He was buried in his own abbey at Westminster, under whose shadow he had passed away. When the fame of his holiness had been noised abroad, men went on pilgrimages to his tomb and called him a saint. Two hundred years after this King Henry III. pulled down Edward's church and built in its stead a still more magnificent one in the *Gothic* or pointed style, which was then coming into fashion. This is the Westminster Abbey which we

still have, and in which all our English kings are crowned and many of them lie buried. Behind the high altar of the abbey you may still see in a little chapel the *shrine* or tomb of the sainted king.

5. Edward left no children. His nearest kinsman was a boy named *Edgar* (called the *Ætheling* or prince), a grandson of Edmund Ironside. But it was thought foolish to set up a child as king, and, as there was no grown man of the royal house at hand, the nobles resolved that Harold, Earl



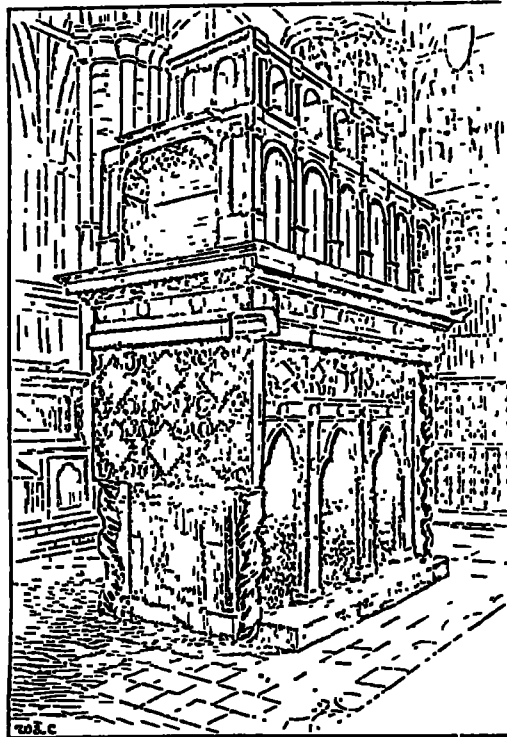
Harold returning to England.
(Bayeux Tapestry.)

of the West Saxons, should be their king. At first sight it seemed a wise choice. Harold was the strongest of the earls, and had been for years the real ruler of the kingdom. But he was not of the sacred royal house, and the other nobles soon became jealous of the man whom they looked upon as their equal. Thus it was that the strong earl proved a weak king, though he fought bravely and did all that he could to uphold his authority. But Edwin and Morcar now sought to rule Mercia and Northumbria as if they were kings themselves. Moreover, the news soon came that two foreign rulers were preparing to invade England. These were *Harold Hardrada* (that is, Hard in rede or

counsel), King of the Norwegians, and the dead king's cousin, *William*, Duke of the Normans.

6. In the summer, Harold of Norway landed in the north. He was the most famous warrior of his time, and many songs and stories tell of his prowess in battle and the strange adventures which befell him. With him came Tostig, our Harold's banished brother, who sought, like a traitor, to win back his old carldom

Harold
defeats
Harold
Hardrada.



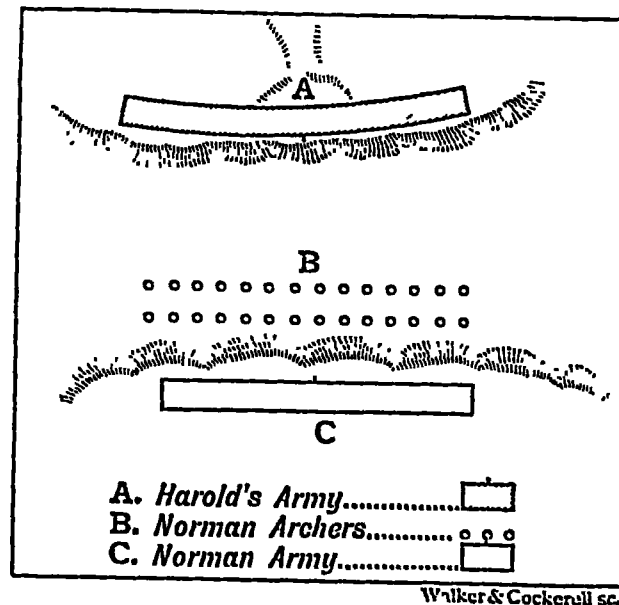
Tomb of Edward the Confessor in Westminster Abbey.
(Built in the Thirteenth Century.)

with the help of the foreigner. Edwin and Morcar were powerless to withstand the invaders, so Harold came to their assistance. The two Harolds fought a fierce battle at *Stamford Bridge*, near York, in which the English gained a complete victory. The Norwegian king and Tostig were both slain on the field.

But triumph brought no rest for Harold. News at once came that William of Normandy had landed in Sussex, and he hurried back to the south to deal with this second foe. Edwin and Morcar, though they had been saved by Harold's help, were cowardly enough to stay behind in the north. Only his West Saxons went with Harold to meet Duke William.

7. The decisive battle was fought at a place about seven miles north of Hastings, where the town of *Battle* afterwards grew up round the abbey which the Conqueror founded to celebrate his triumph. Harold placed his troops on a hill, and arranged them in close order. They

The Battle
of Hastings.



Walker & Cockerell sc.

Battle of Hastings.

fought on foot after the ancient English fashion, and stood shoulder to shoulder protected by their long shields, which formed a sort of wall to keep off the enemy. The Normans fought on horseback according to the newer custom of the French, and strove to break down the shield wall by fierce and repeated cavalry charges, while their archers prepared the way for the

horsemen by galling the English with their arrows. For a long time the Normans were unable to drive the English from their position. But at last William cleverly ordered his men to pretend to run away. The English thought that the battle was won, and, rashly breaking up their close formation, began to pursue the enemy. But the Normans at once turned back and renewed the fight. Now that the shield wall was broken, the horseman was more than a match for



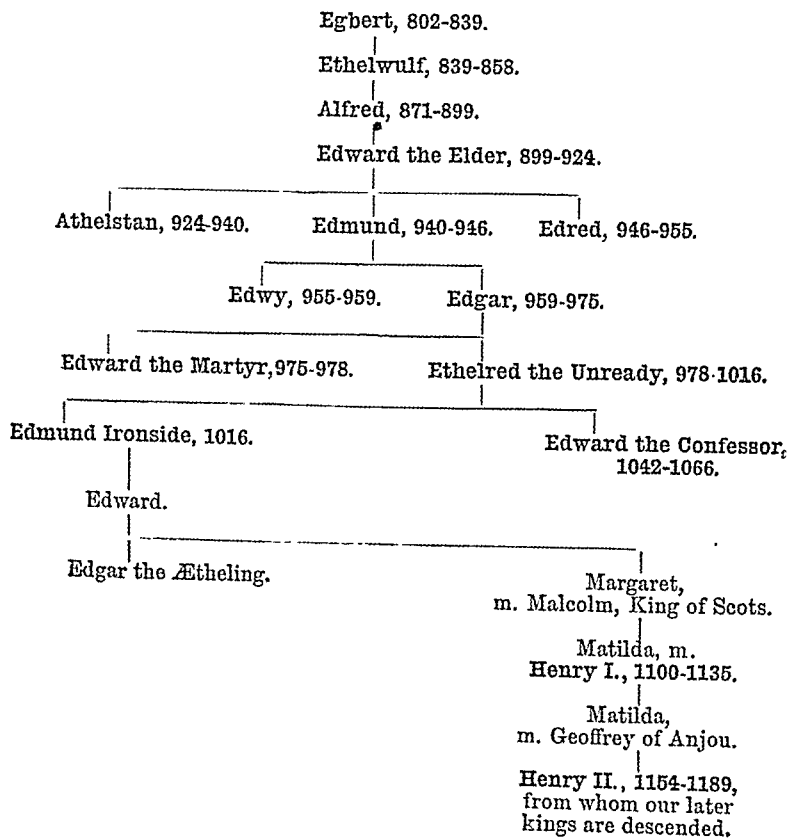
Norman Soldiers. (Bayeux Tapestry)

the footman. The English army was soon thoroughly beaten. Harold fought bravely to the last, and died a soldier's death on the field. The West Saxons could make no further resistance. The victorious Normans marched through the southern counties at their will, and at last reached London, and took possession of the city. Thereupon the panic-stricken English made the best of a bad job and chose William as their king. On Christmas Day 1066, the Norman Duke was crowned King of the English in Edward the Confessor's new abbey of Westminster.

⋮

Reign of Harold

GENEALOGY OF THE CHIEF ENGLISH KINGS OF THE WEST SAXON HOUSE,
SHOWING THE DESCENT OF OUR LATER KINGS FROM THEM.



CHAPTER V I

English Life before the Norman Conquest

1. Up to the Norman Conquest, the English lived a very quiet, stay-at-home life. The land was very scantily peopled, and most of the country was still taken up with waste, forest, moor, and fen. There were few towns, and little trade. The greatest city was London, which ever since Roman times had been the chief centre of commerce in the land. But London was not yet the capital, since the kings of the house of Wessex still preferred to live at the old West-Saxon royal city of Winchester. With the founding of Westminster Abbey, however, Westminster gradually became the chief residence of the king.

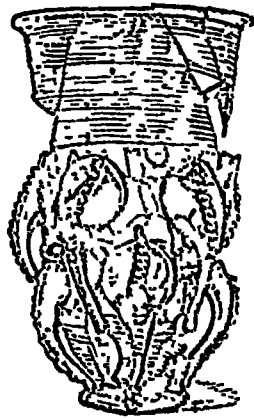
Town life.

2. Nearly everybody still lived in the country, and most free Englishmen possessed a plot of land. The English were therefore a nation of farmers and herdsmen, delighting in a simple out-of-door life. Agriculture was very primitive, and little was grown save corn. Flocks and herds were the chief source of wealth. Even the houses of the rich were very rude and ill-built, being constructed mainly of wood. The greater part of the house was taken up by one large room called the hall. There were no glass windows, and the very few openings to let in air and light were covered with oiled rags. There were no chimneys, and the smoke of the great fire, which blazed on a hearth in the centre of

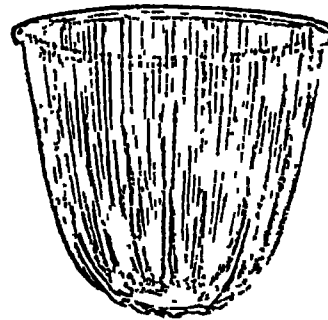
Country life.

52 English Life before the Norman Conquest

the hall, made its way out of the building through a hole in the roof. But though life was rude, there was plenty of meat and bread, ale and mead, and our ancestors loved feasting and good cheer. The rich had some luxuries, and were fond of jewellery. A famous example of this is the Alfred jewel, which was dug up at Athelney, and of which a picture is here given. It may possibly have belonged to King Alfred himself, and bears the inscription, 'Alfred had me wrought.' Our ancestors amused themselves out of doors by



Drinking-Glass. (British Museum.)



Anglo-Saxon Glass.

hunting, and indoors by singing songs, telling stories, and guessing riddles. But perhaps their chief distraction was hard drinking.

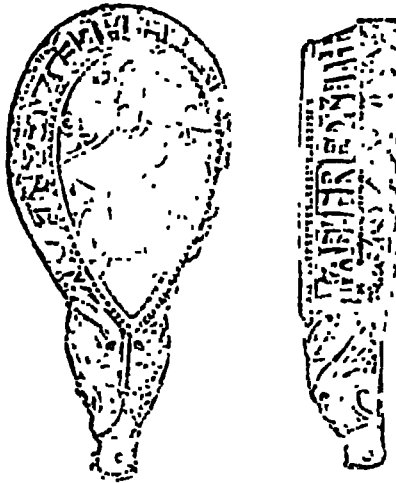
3. The times were rude, and it was hard to make strong men obey the law. Yet the law was not very severe according to our notions. Most crimes, even murder, could be atoned for by a money payment. The sum of money paid by a murderer to the kinsman of him who was slain was called the *Wergild*. It varied in amount according to the rank of the victim. It was thought important that every freeman should possess land, not only because it enabled him to earn his own livelihood, but also because in that case, if he did any

Crime and
punish-
ments.

wrong, his land could be seized by way of punishment. Those who did not possess land were compelled to choose a lord who would be responsible for their acts.

4. The lowest class of the population consisted of slaves or *thegns*, who, like horses and cattle, were the absolute property of their owners. Many of these were the descendants of those who had been slaves for many generations. But criminals were often made slaves, and in times of famine it was

Slaves.



Gold Jewel of Alfred found at Athelney.
(Now in the Ashmolean Museum, Oxford.)

not uncommon for men to sell themselves in order to obtain enough bread to support life.

5. The simple freeman, called the *eorl* or *churl*, was the backbone of the community. Yet as time went on the nobles became more and more powerful.

They became great owners of land, had many slaves, and were the lords of many landless men, and even of many small landholders. The most important of the nobles were called the *king's thegns* or servants. These thegns received extensive grants of land from the king, and were bound to fight for him in his wars.

Freemen
and thegns.

54 English Life before the Norman Conquest

6. There were no regular soldiers in those days like our modern standing army, but every man was called upon to fight for his country when occasion arose. There was so much fighting, moreover, that each freeman had plenty of chances of gaining experience as a soldier. The army, called the *fyrð*, consisted then of the whole nation in arms. But the *fyrð* disliked staying long in the field or going great distances to fight, so that the king's thegns and their followers, who were more accustomed to military life and discipline, were the chief trust of the monarch when serious warfare had to be waged.

7. The king was the head of the nation, and was treated with great respect. He nearly always belonged to the royal house of Wessex, but on each king's death his successor was elected by the nobles. They almost always chose the son of the last ruler, if there were a son alive who had reached manhood. Yet a youthful son was often set aside in favour of a full-grown brother of the last king. It was thought very important that the monarch should himself be able to rule. But several boys were chosen kings for want of better qualified members of the royal house, and the cases of Cnut and Harold show that it was not impossible for the electors to go outside the West Saxon line altogether.

8. The king was elected, and when appointed was advised by a great council called the *Witenagemot*, that is the Meeting of the *Witan*, or Wise Men. It was not a representative body like our modern House of Commons, but was more like our House of Lords, consisting of great officials, such as the aldermen or earls of shires, the bishops and abbots, the king's kinsmen, and also of the king's thegns or chief nobles. The king was supposed to do nothing without consulting this body. Though a strong king could generally get his own way, a weak

one was very much dependent upon his nobles and bishops.

9. The land was divided into *shires* or counties. Some of these originated in the ancient kingdoms of the English, such as Kent or Sussex, while others, like the shires of the Midlands, were mere divisions made for convenience. In each shire there was a court called the *shire-moot*, or county court. This was a very important body. It was the chief court of justice, and all trials of importance were conducted in it. It was also a sort of popular assembly, consisting of all the great men of the shire, and also of representatives of the various *townships* into which the shire was divided. Between the shire and the township stood an intermediate division called the *hundred*, or, in the Dane law, the *wapentake*. This also had a court, called the *hundred-moot*, which, like the shire-moot, consisted of representatives of the different townships included in it. This court was the place where trials of less importance than those which were held in the shire court took place. All these local courts were very strong and popular. They had been going on for a very long time, and Englishmen in those days thought a great deal more about their own neighbourhood than they did of the land as a whole. This was one of the reasons why it was so hard to make England a united nation. But this union of England, which the sluggish, easy-going old English could never thoroughly bring about, was now to be accomplished by their strenuous, energetic, and remorseless Norman conquerors.

Shires,
hundreds,
and
townships.

BOOK II

NORMAN AND ANGEVIN BRITAIN, 1066-1216

CHAPTER VII

The Norman Kings of the English, 1066-1154

Principal Persons :

William I., the Conqueror; Hereward; Archbishop Lanfranc; Robert, Duke of Normandy; Matilda of Flanders; William II., Rufus; St. Anselm, Archbishop of Canterbury; Henry I.; Queen Matilda; Malcolm, King of Scots, and St. Margaret, his wife; William, son of Henry I.; Matilda, his daughter; Geoffrey, Count of Anjou, her husband; Henry of Anjou, their son; King Stephen.

Principal Dates :

- 1066-1087. Reign of William I., the Conqueror.
- 1071. Hereward's Camp at Ely captured.
- 1086. The Domesday Book drawn up.
- 1087-1100. Reign of William II., Rufus.
- 1095. First Crusade Preached.
- 1100-1135. Reign of Henry I.
- 1135-1154. Reign of Stephen.

1. William I., called the *Conqueror*, was a fierce and ruthless king, who ruled his new kingdom with a much firmer hand than any of the kings who had gone before him. Edwin and Morcar, the Earls of Northumbria and Mercia, soon found that William would not allow them to govern their earldoms after their own pleasure, as they had done in the days of Edward the Confessor and Harold. They felt sorry that they had ever agreed to make

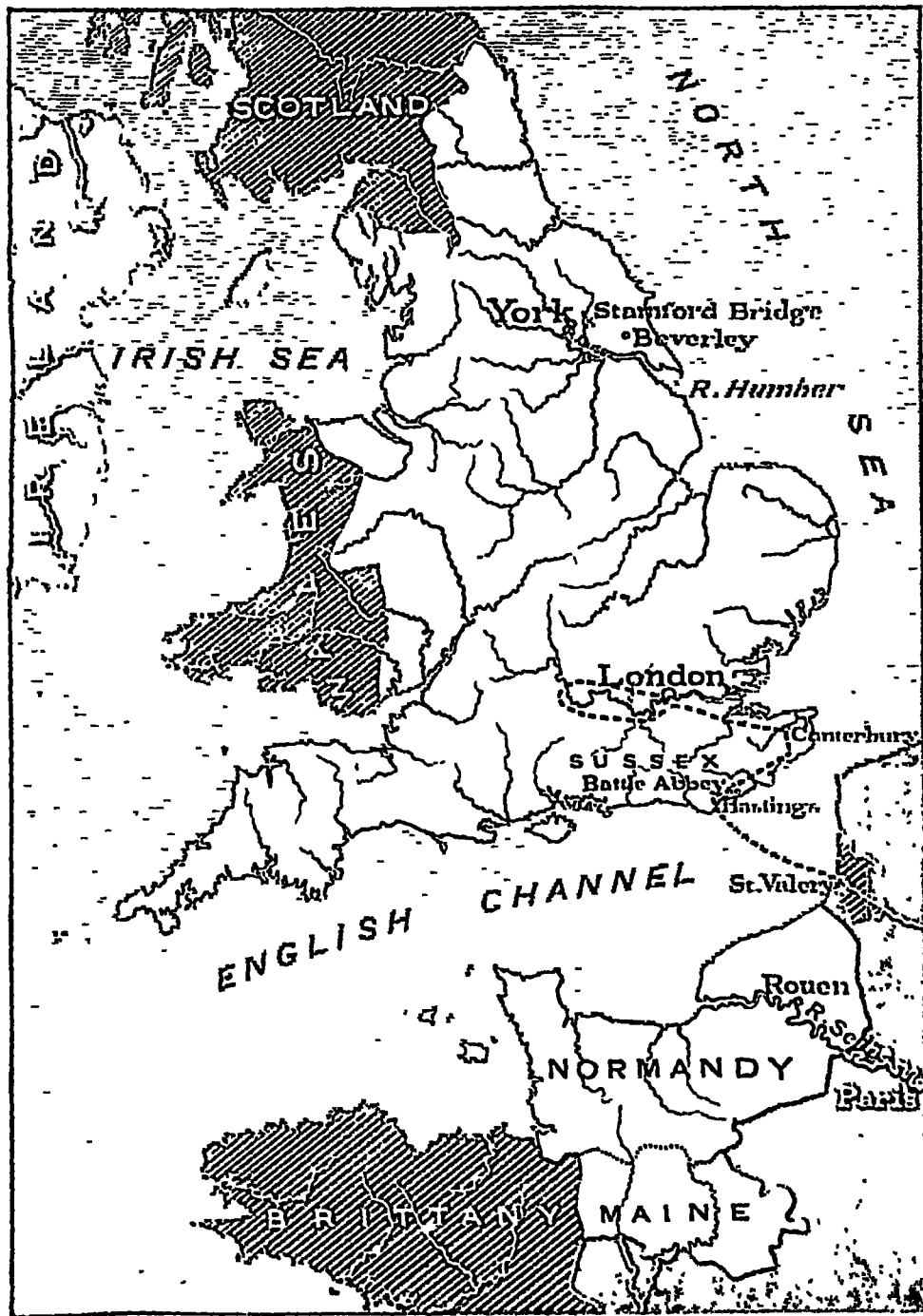
him king, and before long rose in revolt against him. But William and his Norman followers easily put down their rebellions and took their earldoms away from them. Even after this the English kept on rising in arms against their foreign sovereign. But as in the days of the Danish invasions, the English were too much divided among themselves to work together against the common enemy. There was therefore no general revolt, and the districts that rebelled got little help from their countrymen outside their own neighbourhood. The consequence was that the Normans were able to conquer the land bit by bit, and the English won no advantage from their numbers or their bravery. The North was the hardest part to subdue, and it was only finally secured by William laying waste all the most fertile parts of Yorkshire.

2. Even after this, some of the bravest of the English still held their own in the desolate fen country which cut off East Anglia from the Midlands. Headed by the heroic *Hereward*, they built a camp of refuge in the *Isle of Ely*, a little piece of solid ground in the midst of a wilderness of marsh and water. But at last William made his way even to this remote stronghold, and compelled Hereward and his followers to submit. Thus after nearly four years of hard fighting, the Norman Conquest of England was completed by 1071. It had only been begun when Harold fell at Hastings.

Hereward
subdued.

3. All over the land William built strong castles, which he filled with Norman soldiers to keep down the English. At first these castles were formed by wooden palisades enclosing a moated mound. But before long these were replaced by solid stone structures. The most famous of these latter is the *Tower of London*, which was set up to overawe the Londoners. Another very strong Norman fortress is Rochester Castle, built under

Norman
castles.



William's English and Norman Dominions.....
 Lands over which William was Lord
 Foreign Lands.....
 Course of William I. from St. Valery to London.....

THE DOMINIONS OF WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR.

Henry I. But there are few parts of the land in which you cannot still see the ruins of a stone-built Norman castle. Sometimes it had a high square tower built of solid stone, called the *keep*, with walls of enormous thickness. Sometimes the keep was more lightly built on



Keep of Rochester Castle.
(Built between 1126 and 1139.)

the top of a mound of earth, and was further protected by deep ditches filled with water, and high earthworks crowned with solid stone walls. As soon as a castle was built in a district, its conquest was certain to follow, since the English had no way of capturing these strongholds, in which a few Normans might wait

quietly until the king sent enough soldiers to put down a rebellion.

4. William took away from the English most of their lands and gave them to his Norman followers.

The Feudal System. He required, however, that every man who received from him a grant of land, called a *fief*, should take an oath that he would be faithful to the king, and also should, as a sort of rent, be bound to send a certain number of soldiers to fight the king's battles. Such a man was called the king's *baron*, or *vassal*. The grantor of the land was called the *lord* of the vassal. In the same way the king's barons granted their land to others, who bound themselves by similar oaths and promises of service to the barons who thus became their lords. There was always a danger lest a man should uphold his nearest lord even against the king, and William tried to prevent that by ordering all landholders to take special oaths that they would be true to the king against all men. The system, thus set up by William, was called *feudalism*, or the *feudal system*.

5. The result of all these changes was that the English became the vassals and dependents of the Norman barons who had helped William to conquer the country. The English had no longer any leaders, since William took away their lands from the English nobility and gentry, and thus reduced them to poverty. The king knew very well that his fierce Norman barons did not win the land for himself only, but would insist on being well paid for their trouble. He was therefore compelled to hand over to them the lands which he had seized from the English. But the king had learned by long experience in Normandy that his nobles were not to be trusted. They wanted to get as much power as they could into their own hands, and therefore tried to prevent the king from becoming too strong.

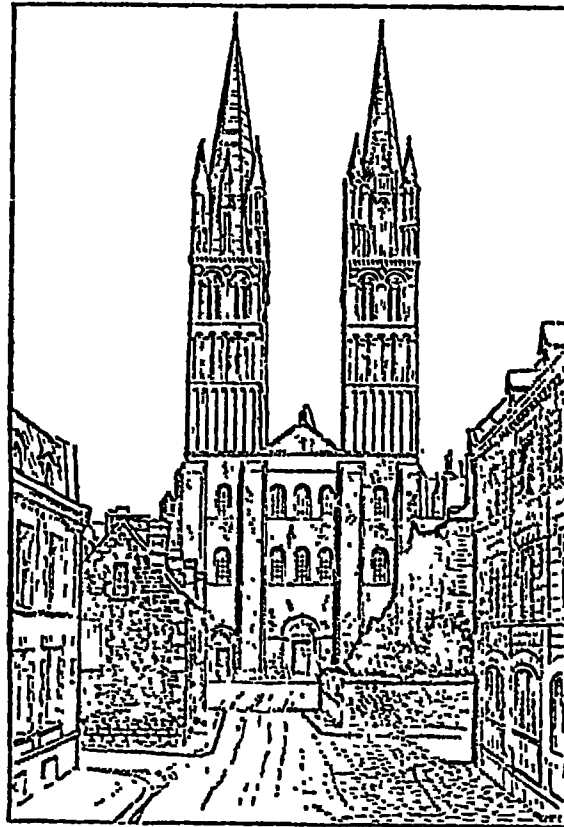
William, however, did his best to prevent them from getting powerful. He took good care that no Norman baron should rule such great tracts of land as Edwin and Morcar had done. He put an end to the great earldoms which, ever since Cnut's days, had been breaking up the unity of the land. Instead of giving his followers wide stretches of land in the same districts, he followed the custom of earlier kings in bestowing on them a large number of little estates scattered all over the country. This policy annoyed the Normans very much, and they rose in revolt against William as often as they dared. Very often they used the castles built to keep down the English as the means of resisting the authority of the king. But William showed that he was too strong for his barons.

6. In a few years the Conqueror managed to win over the English to his side. The poor English soon found out that the barons were far worse tyrants than the king. William wished all those who obeyed his rule to live in comfort and peace, and often protected the English from the tyranny of the petty Norman barons who were their direct lords. It soon became a matter of course that the English fought for the king against his Norman barons. Through their help William made himself one of the strongest kings in Europe. He tried to please them by carrying on as far as he could the old customs of the English. He said that he was the rightful heir of Edward the Confessor, and that he would therefore rule the land by Edward's own laws. But besides this William was a just man, terrible to his enemies, but kind to those who did his bidding. For all these reasons the changes brought about by the Norman Conquest, great as they were, were not so great as they would have been if William had never had reason to fall back on the English people for help against the unruly Norman barons.

William and
the English.

7. William brought about almost as many changes in the Church as in the State. He got rid of nearly all the English bishops and abbots, and put Normans or other foreigners in their places. He gave the archbishopric of Canterbury to *Lanfranc*, a learned and able Italian monk who had long lived in Normandy. Lanfranc

The Norman
Conquest
and the
Church.



Church of St. Etienne (Stephen), Caen.
(Containing the tomb of William the Conqueror.)

and William reformed the whole condition of the English Church. They made the clergy more active, hard-working, and better educated. They set up new monasteries, and gave them rich grants of land. They covered the country with vast and noble churches and cathedrals, built after that Norman fashion first brought into the land when Edward the

Confessor founded Westminster Abbey. A magnificent example of the Norman style of building in the Normans' own land can still be seen in the church of St. Stephen at Caen, of which William was the founder, and in which he lies buried. One result of the changes now introduced into the Church was that the Pope became more powerful in England than he had ever been before. In Church as in State the English had to give way to the foreigners. For a long time the Normans held all the high posts. French took the place of English as the language of the upper classes.

8. The Normans were the most restless and enterprising people in Europe, and brought into England all sorts of changes that the English would have been too lazy to introduce if they had been left to themselves. Hence it was that, though they did much evil, on the whole they did more good than harm. Gradually they taught the English some of their energy and spirit. In order to carry out his reforms properly William I. wished to raise as heavy taxes as he could. With this object he strove to find out how much land and other property everybody possessed, as he could then tax each man in proportion to his means. He therefore drew up a book called the *Domesday Book*, in which was written down, as if for the day of doom or judgment, what lands there were in England, who held them, and how much he was bound to pay the king for them. The English grumbled at all these things being put on record, for they knew it would enable the king to get every possible penny of taxes from them. But we have reason to be grateful to William, since his *Domesday Book* gives us an enormous amount of information as to the state of England at this period. Like most books of the time, it was written in Latin.

9. William married *Matilda* of Flanders. They had

three sons, *Robert*, *William*, and *Henry*. The eldest, Robert, was a good-natured, easy-going man, and a brave soldier. But he was not so strong or so clever as his father, and was more friendly with the Norman barons than William wished. On one occasion Robert rose in rebellion

xxv. **TERRA Willi de BRAIOSE.** *In Reduons hō*
 tē de Braiose tē de rege Sūccore. *In Reduons hō*
 tē de rege. E. tē se de fā p. ii. hid. modo p. una hid.
 tē. e. iii. car. In dñio. e. una. 7 v. uilli 7 vii. bord. cū. iii.
 car. lb. molū de. xviii. solid. 7 piscaria de. l. denar.
 Valur. iii. lib. modo. c. solid.
 xxvi. **TERRA Willielmi. LOUER.** *In Tūsch hō*
 tē de Louer tē de rege Sūccore. *In Tūsch hō*
 tē de rege. E. tē se de fā p. viii. hid. modo p. i. hid. 7 una v.
 tē. e. v. car. In dñio. dim. car. 7 iii. uilli 7 iii. bord. cū. iii.
 car. lb. ii. sequi. 7 molū de. xv. solid. 7 iii. ac pā.
 Silua de. v. port. Valur. viii. lib. 7 post. c. sol. modo. lxx. sol.
 tē. W. tē de Louer tē de rege. *In Tūsch hō*
 de rege. E. in alod p. vi. tē. 7 iii. p. iii. hid. 7 una v.
 tē. e. ii. car. lb. sunt. ii. uilli 7 vii. bord. cū. ii. car.
 7 xiii. ac pā. Silua ad clausurā. Valur. xl. sol. modo. xxx. sol.
 tē. W. tē de Louer tē de rege. *In Tūsch hō*
 de rege. E. tē p. v. hid. m. p. ii. hid. 7 dim. tē. e.
 iii. car. In dñio. e. una. 7 iii. uilli 7 iii. car. cū. i. car.
 7 dim. lb. molū de. xii. sol. 7 vi. den. 7 xl. ac pā.
 Valur. vi. lib. 7 ualec. quif. red. vii. lib.

Part of Domesday Book.
 (About Three-fourths Scale of Original.)

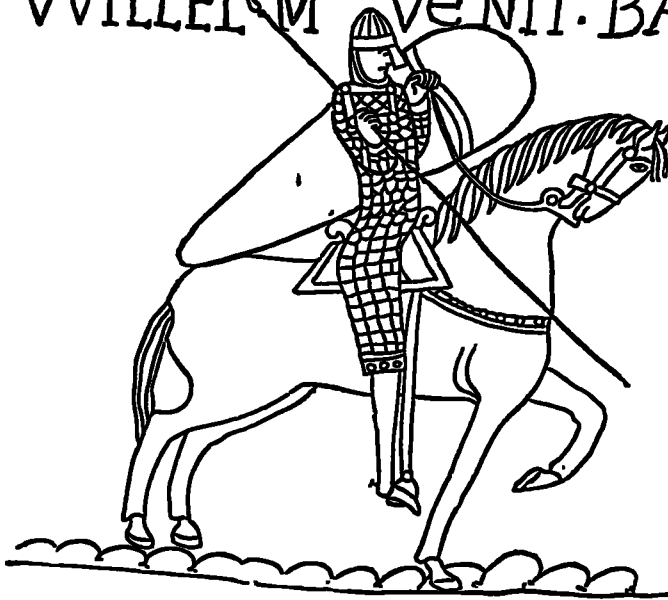
against the old king, who had much trouble before he could reduce him to submission. The second son, William, called *Rufus*, or the Red, from the colour of his hair, was more a man after the Conqueror's own heart. He was fierce, strong, and cruel, but he was neither so just nor so religious as the old king. But England in those days had need of a vigorous ruler,

and the Conqueror on his death-bed declared that he wished William and not Robert to succeed him.

10. Things happened as the Conqueror had desired. In 1087, through Lanfranc's help, William Rufus became William II., and Robert was forced to content himself with the duchy of Normandy. But the Norman barons in England preferred Robert to William, since they saw that

The reign
of William
Rufus.

VVILLEM VENIT: BAGIAS



William goes to Bayeux. (Bayeux Tapestry.)

they would be more likely to get their own way under his weak and careless rule. They therefore several times rose in revolt, hoping to drive away Rufus and make Robert king. However, William was easily able to put down these rebellions. The English supported Rufus against the barons. They knew that he was a cruel tyrant, but they also knew he could protect them, and they felt that it was better for them to be ruled by one powerful king than by many petty barons.

11. For the first years of his reign the Red King was kept in check by the aged Archbishop Lanfranc. But

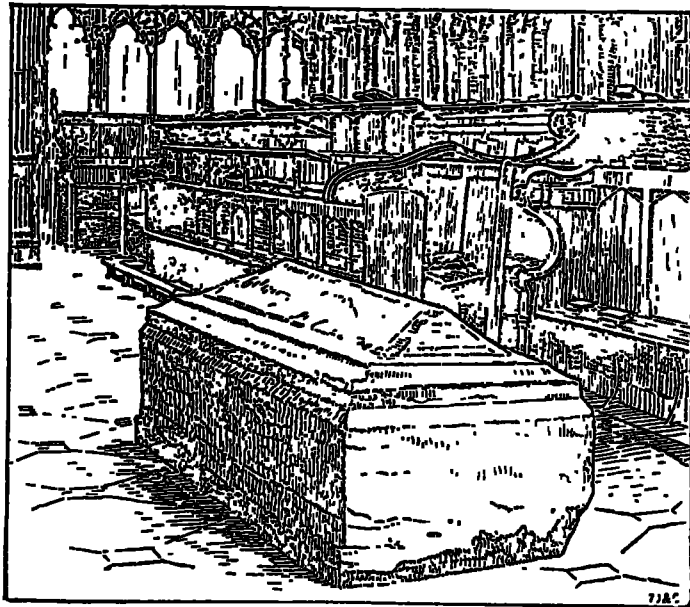
William II.
and Anselm. Lanfranc soon died, and then William became more greedy, fierce, and brutal than he had been before. He refused to make

a new Archbishop of Canterbury, partly because he wished to keep in his own hands the rich lands of the archbishop, and partly because he was afraid lest the new archbishop, like Lanfranc, would act as a curb on his evil desires. But at last William was smitten with a sudden fever and thought he was going to die. He was frightened into repentance for his many sins, and as a sign of his wish to amend his ways, he agreed to an archbishop being chosen. The man he took for the office was a pious monk named *Anselm* who, like Lanfranc, had gone from Italy to Normandy, and was then the abbot of the same monastery in Normandy in which Lanfranc had lived. Anselm was a very learned man who wrote famous books, but he was as gentle, holy, and simple as he was learned. He had no desire to be made archbishop, but in 1093 the king forced him to accept the office. Soon afterwards William regained his health, and at once fell back into his evil and tyrannical courses. He thought Anselm too weak to resist him, and began to worry and persecute the archbishop by all sorts of petty devices. But Anselm felt that it was his duty to uphold all the ancient rights of the see of Canterbury, and to strive to teach the king and his courtiers the way to a more honest and noble life. The gentle archbishop showed himself as strong in upholding what was good as the wicked king was strong in upholding what was evil. Neither would yield to the other, but at last Anselm was forced to leave the country and to remain in exile for the rest of Rufus' reign.

12. The favourite amusement of the Norman kings

and their nobles was hunting. William the Conqueror, we are told, loved the tall deer as if he had been their father. He made large forests wherein wild beasts might roam freely, and ordered that any man who killed a deer or a boar should be blinded. In Hampshire he drove out the inhabitants of many villages in order to make the forest which is still called the *New Forest*. This

Death of
William
Rufus.

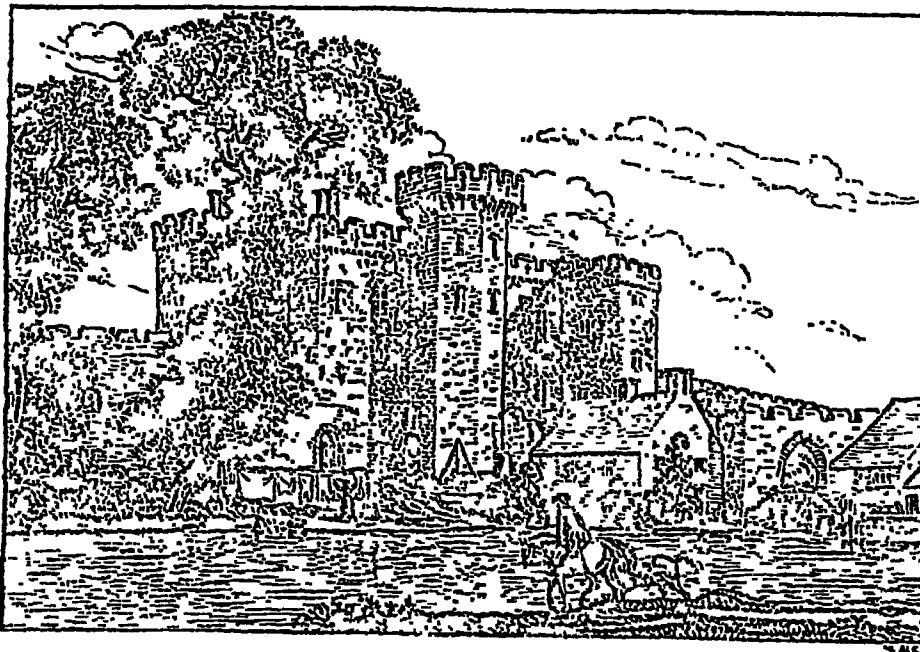


Tomb of William Rufus in Winchester Cathedral.

was a very favourite hunting-ground of our Norman kings. Now Rufus was as keen a huntsman as his father had been. He made many fresh forests and terribly oppressed the poor by the severity of his forest laws. One day in 1100. he went from Winchester to hunt in the New Forest. In the midst of his sport he was shot through the heart by an arrow from an unknown hand. His body was brought back to Winchester in a poor charcoal burner's cart, and was buried in the cathedral there, where his tomb

may still be seen. No priest durst say a prayer for the wicked king, cut off in the midst of his sin, unrepentant and unshriven. Yet with all his wickedness, he did good service to England by keeping the barons in order and allowing no one to oppress his subjects but himself.

13. Once more the barons sought to make Robert king, and once more the first-born of the Conqueror had



The South Gate of Cardiff Castle about the Year 1775.
(The Buildings here shown are not older than the Fourteenth Century.)

to give way to a stronger and wiser younger brother. Henry I., the youngest son of William I., was now made king. He was even more like his father than was the Red King. But though less violent and fickle than William II., he was nearly as cruel and as selfish. However, he made a far better king and a much more popular one. Born on English soil after his father had been crowned king, he was looked upon as half an Englishman. He

married *Matilda*, daughter of *Malcolm*, King of Scots, and his wife *St. Margaret*, a very pious and good lady, who was a granddaughter of Edmund Ironside, the sister of Edgar the Ætheling, and the heiress of the old West Saxon kings. Through her our later kings are descended from Egbert, Alfred, and Edgar, as well as from William the Conqueror. This marriage still further increased Henry's popularity with the English, who supported him in his wars with his barons with even more zeal than they had upheld his brother. With English help Henry easily put down the revolts of the barons in favour of Robert. After six years he conquered Normandy, and once more joined together the duchy with the English crown. Robert was taken prisoner, and spent the rest of his life shut up in *Cardiff Castle*. After this no baron durst raise his hand against Henry.

14. When Henry became king, Anselm came back to England, but soon a quarrel broke out between him and the king, and the good archbishop was for a second time driven into exile. How-
Quarrel of
Henry I. and
Anselm.
ever, things were not as bad now as they had been in Rufus' time, and before long Henry and Anselm found out a way of settling their differences. The archbishop went back to England and became for the rest of his life the king's close friend and helper.

15. Henry raised heavy taxes and cruelly put down all rebellions. But under his rule the land once more became prosperous. Men called him the *Lion of Righteousness* because of his jus-
Henry I.'s
just rule.
tice, and an English monk thus spoke of him at his death: 'He was a good man, and great was the awe of him. No man durst ill-treat another in his days. He made good peace for man and beast.'

16. A great sorrow clouded Henry's old age. This was the death of his son *William*. The young prince sailed from Normandy to England in a fine new vessel called the *White Ship*. The ship struck on a rock off the Norman coast, and smashed in her side.

The loss of
the *White*
Ship and the
death of
Henry I.

William was put into a boat, and might have escaped safely to land. But his sister was on the sinking ship, and cried loudly to him to come to her help. William ordered the sailors to return, but when he drew near the *White Ship*, so many pressed into the boat that they sank it, and only one man survived to tell the tale. Henry now sought to persuade his barons to allow his daughter *Matilda* to reign after his death. The barons were very unwilling to agree to this, partly because they did not like to be ruled by a woman, and partly because *Matilda* was married to *Geoffrey*, Count of Anjou, and the Normans hated the Angevins, as the men of Anjou were called. But the king's will prevailed, and all the barons took oaths to obey *Matilda* as their future queen.

17. Henry I. died in 1135. Thereupon the barons broke their promises, and chose as their king *Count Stephen of Boulogne*, Henry's nephew, and a grandson of the Conqueror. Stephen was a mild, good-natured, and kindly man, a brave soldier, and the most lovable of all the Norman kings. But like his uncle, Duke Robert, he was weak and soft, and the barons soon found out that if they chose to disobey him, the new king was not strong enough to enforce his will. Before long *Matilda* came to England and claimed her father's throne. A long civil war followed. Some of the barons upheld Stephen and others *Matilda*. But few of them really cared for either, and most only wished that the quarrel should go on as long as possible, and

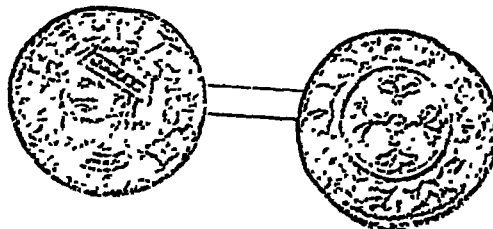
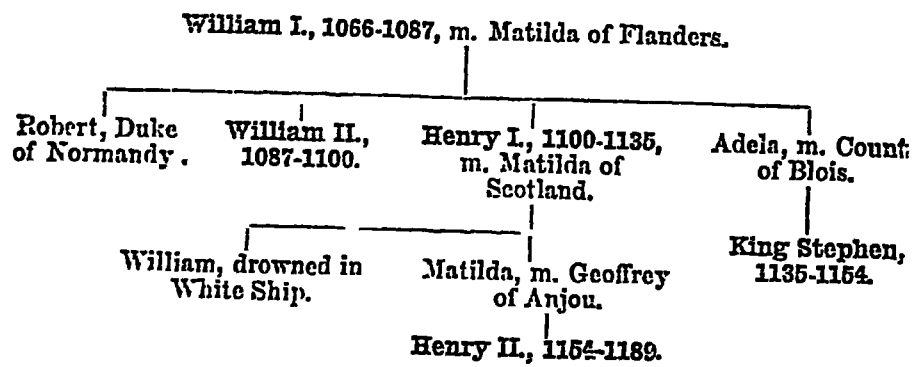
The misrule
of King
Stephen.

that neither rival for the throne should get the upper hand over the other. At last Matilda gave up the struggle in despair, but even then Stephen could not restore law and order. As he grew old, Henry of Anjou, Matilda's son, came to England to revive his mother's claim. The broken-spirited Stephen had no heart to fight against him, but consented to recognise Henry as his successor, if he were allowed to go on reigning until his death. Henry agreed to these terms, and went back to France. Thus Stephen remained king, so far as the title went, until his own death in 1154. But for all these nineteen years he had been king only in name.

18. An English monk has told us of the terrible state of the country during Stephen's reign. 'Every rich man built castles and filled them with evil men. They took those who had any goods and tortured them with pains unspeakable, for never were any martyrs tormented as these were. Many thousands died of hunger. Thou mightest walk a whole day's journey without seeing the lands tilled. Then was corn dear and flesh, for there was none in the land. The land was all ruined by such misdeeds, and it was said openly that Christ and His saints slept.' These terrible years taught the people what the rule of the nobles meant, and how everything depended on restoring the power of the crown. The lesson was so well learned that England never again had to suffer as she suffered under King Stephen.

State of
England
during the
war between
Stephen and
Matilda.

GENEALOGY OF THE NORMAN KINGS.



A Silver Penny of William the Conqueror, struck at Romney.

CHAPTER VIII

Henry II. (of Anjou), 1154-1189 (Married Eleanor of Aquitaine)

Principal Persons :

Henry II., Eleanor of Aquitaine, their sons, Henry the Younger.
Richard, Geoffrey, and John ; Thomas Becket, Archbishop
of Canterbury.

Principal Dates :

- 1154. Accession of Henry II.
- 1164. Henry quarrels with Archbishop Thomas.
- 1166. Assize of Clarendon.
- 1170. Murder of St. Thomas.
- 1171. Henry becomes Lord of Ireland.
- 1181. Assize of Arms.
- 1189. Death of Henry II.

1. With Henry II.'s accession begins a new race of English kings, which is generally called the Angevin family, or the *House of Anjou*, from Henry's father, Count *Geoffrey* of Anjou. It is also sometimes called the *House of Plantagenet*, from the yellow broom-flower, called in Latin the *Planta genista*, which Count Geoffrey wore in his helmet by way of a badge. Under him the houses of Normandy and Anjou, hitherto rivals and enemies, became united. But besides this we should not forget that Henry II. was also descended through his grandmother, Matilda, the queen of Henry I., from the old West Saxon line of English kings. He was the first king since Edward the Confessor in whose veins flowed the blood of the old English kings.

2. Henry was one of the cleverest of all our kings. Not even William the Conqueror had greater ability, and no king has had a deeper influence on our later history. He was a fierce, restless man, working very hard at the business of governing his dominions, and fond of trying new ways of ruling. He was terribly passionate, and raved like a madman when swayed by bursts of temper. But he was shrewd, prudent, and far-sighted, a great warrior, and a greater statesman.

3. Henry was already a powerful ruler when Stephen's death made him King Henry II. of England. From his mother

Henry II.'s continental dominions. Matilda he inherited Normandy, and from his father, Count

Geoffrey, he had obtained Anjou and a rich territory in central France. He had largely increased his power by his marriage with *Eleanor of Aquitaine*, the heiress

of the old line of the Dukes of Aquitaine, who ruled over a vast territory in southern France extending from the river Loire to the mountains of the Pyrenees. Moreover, a few years later Henry married one of his sons, Geoffrey, to the heiress of Brittany, and afterwards ruled over that country as its lord. All this made Henry a much more important man in France than the French king himself. But his wide possessions also brought many troubles to him. Both his southern and northern French territories were filled with a nobility as greedy and as quarrelsome as were the Norman nobles in England during the evil days of Stephen. Moreover, Henry's French dominions



Planta genista.

constantly led him into difficulties with his overlord, the king of the French, who was very jealous of him. Yet he was strong enough to deal with all these troubles. When he had added England to his other dominions, he was as powerful as any king in Europe.

4. It was Henry II.'s first business in England to



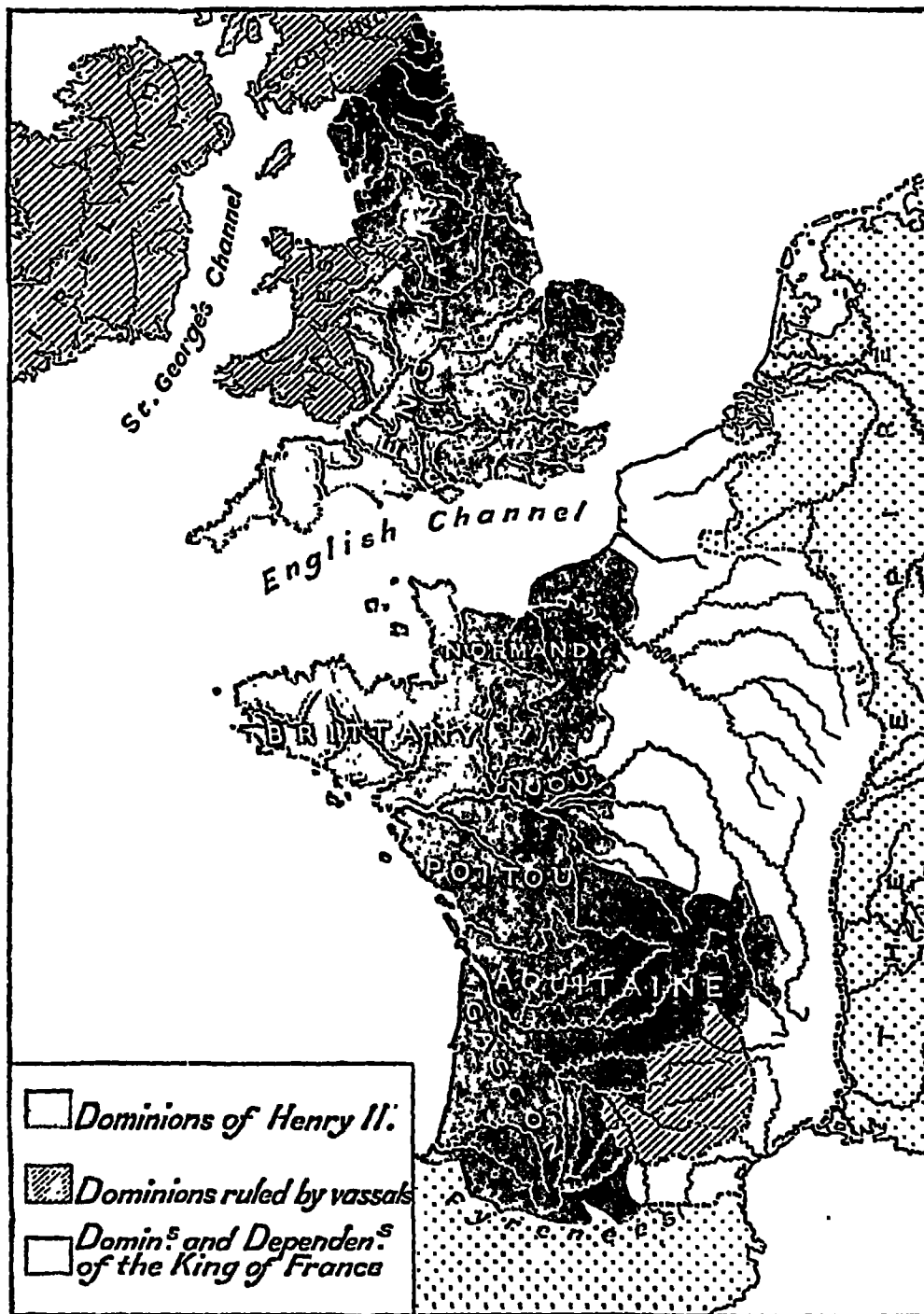
Queen Eleanor of Aquitaine,
Wife of Henry II.



Henry II.

put an end to the disorders of Stephen's reign and restore law and peace. He pulled down most of the new castles which the barons had built without the king's leave during Stephen's reign, and took care that those castles which remained should be garrisoned by men whom he

The restoration of law and order.



THE ANGEVIN EMPIRE.

could trust. Some of the barons tried to resist him, but they were easily subdued. In a very few years things were again much as they had been under Henry I. There was the same stern, hard rule, the same heavy taxes. But the mass of the people suffered these things willingly, as they knew that the king alone could save them from the cruel tyrants of Stephen's days.

5. Henry II. was not long content with simply copying what his grandfather had done. He drew up a series of new laws called *Assizes*, in which he made many great reforms.

Henry II.'s reforms.

By one of these *Assizes*, called the *Assize of Clarendon* (1166), he introduced a new method of trying persons accused of murder or other crimes.

He ordered his judges or *justices* to go from time to time to every county in the land, and to call together from each county a body of men able to tell them what

The Assize of Clarendon and Trial by Jury.

persons had committed any crimes within that county. This body was called a *jury*, that is, a body of sworn men, who got that name from the oath which they swore to tell the truth. It was chosen in the shire-moot, which still went on as it had done before the Norman Conquest. And by bringing the old English shire-moot into close touch with the new royal justices, Henry did a great deal to join together the ancient customs of the English with the new system brought in by the Norman kings. Moreover, Henry found juries so very convenient, that he employed them for many other purposes also. His habit of using them caused the system of *trial by jury*, which still goes on in England, to be established in our land. To this day the king's judges still go round to every county to try prisoners as they did in the reign of Henry II., and they still use the jury system which Henry first made general.

6. Henry made another good law called the *Grand Assize*, which set up a jury to decide who was the rightful owner of a piece of land. Before his time, if a man claimed to be holder of a piece of land, his only way to get it was to challenge the actual possessor to fight him for the land. This was called *trial by battle*, and it was believed that God would give the victory to the man who had the best right. But men now thought that they had no business thus to call upon God's name in vain, and the trial by jury offered by Henry was welcomed as a great boon to the weak and feeble.

The Grand Assize.

7. Another of Henry's laws was called the *Assize of Arms* (1181). By it the king ordered every freeman to provide himself with arms, so that he might serve the king in his wars. Thus not only the nobles who held land of the king, but all freemen, were called upon to fight for their country. Thus the old English *fyrð*, or popular militia, was revived. So little did Henry trust his nobles, that he was often glad to let them off their duty of fighting for him. Instead of personal service they paid him *scutage*, or shield money, with which he was able to hire anybody that he would to serve him as a soldier.

The Assize of Arms and Scutage.

8. During Henry's long and peaceful reign the English and the Normans gradually became united with each other. We have seen how Henry's own grandmother was an Englishwoman. Many of the nobles had also married English ladies, so that their descendants had English as well as Norman ancestors. Moreover, as the old noble families died out, new ones arose in their place which had nothing to do with Normandy, but were purely English by descent and property. Nevertheless the king's vast French dominions kept

The Normans and English become one people.

up close ties between England and the Continent. The king and his courtiers and nobles continued as a rule to talk French, but these French-speaking Englishmen soon became thoroughly English in feeling, and were always very willing to fight the French kings. By Henry II.'s time nobody knew or cared who was of English and who was of Norman descent.

9. In carrying out his early reforms Henry had been much helped by a young priest named *Thomas Becket*, a London merchant's son of great cleverness and zeal, who served as the king's chancellor—that is to say, as the keeper of his seal and secretary. When Henry had been king nearly ten years, he made Thomas Archbishop of Canterbury, hoping that in this great office his faithful minister would continue to look after the royal interests, and do the king's work as he had when he was chancellor. It was very necessary for a king to be good friends with the Archbishop of Canterbury. The Church was extraordinarily powerful in those days, and many of the claims which it raised were such that it was hard for a strong king to accept them. We have seen how Anselm, the best archbishop since the Conquest, quarrelled not only with a wicked king like William II., but also with a fairly good king like Henry I. Henry II. was therefore very anxious to make his best friend head of the English Church.

Thomas
Becket.

10. Becket took a very serious view of his new office. He changed his way of life, became very strict and austere, and was as stiff as Anselm himself in upholding all the rights and liberties of the Church. The consequence was that a very fierce quarrel broke out between Henry and Thomas in 1101. The chief cause of this was the question of how clergymen who had broken the law should be tried

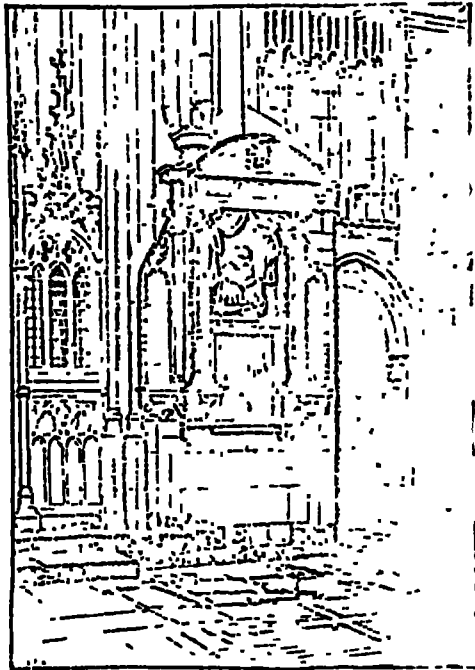
The Consti-
tutions of
Clarendon
and the
Quarrel of
Henry and
Becket.

for their offences. The Church had law courts of its own, and the custom had been since the Norman Conquest for the clergy to be tried in these courts only. But the Church courts could not hang a man, and as the judges were always clergymen, they were inclined to be very merciful to brother-clergymen who had got into difficulties. Now, we must always remember that in those days there were a great many more clergymen than there are now. Nearly everybody who could read and write was made a clergyman, and expected to enjoy the privileges of the clergy. Henry II. thought that the king ought to see that at any rate clergymen who committed murders and similar crimes were properly punished. He drew up a law called the *Constitutions of Clarendon*, in which he claimed certain powers over the Church. Thomas bitterly resisted the Constitutions, and declared that Henry was attacking the liberties of the Church. This made the king very angry, and after some stormy scenes, he drove the archbishop out of the country.

11. Becket remained nearly six years in exile, but in 1170 he and the king patched up their quarrel, and the archbishop went back to Canterbury. No sooner was he again in England than he and the king began a new dispute. Henry fell into one of his wild rages when he heard how Thomas was again setting himself up against the king. 'Will none of the cowards,' cried he, 'who eat my bread rid me of this turbulent priest?' Four of the king's *knights*, or soldiers, took him at his word and hurried straight to Canterbury, hoping to kill the archbishop. On reaching Canterbury they had a fierce talk with Thomas, who withdrew afterwards into his cathedral. It was about dark on a December afternoon, and the monks had just sung vespers. The knights with an armed following burst into the church, crying, 'Where is the traitor?'

The murder
of St.
Thomas of
Canterbury.

The archbishop scorned to hide, and came forth to meet them, saying, 'Here am I, no traitor, but archbishop and priest of God.' Thereupon the king's men set upon him with their swords, and soon stretched him lifeless on the pavement. But the cowardly murderers had done the worst possible service to their king. Becket became revered as a martyr, and



The Martyrdom, Canterbury Cathedral.

(The White Cross drawn in the pavement shows the spot where Thomas Becket was murdered.)

the Pope solemnly declared him to be a saint. Men forgot his quarrelsomeness. They did not care to think how, unlike Anselm, Thomas had ever fought for the Church and the clergy rather than for truth and righteousness. His tomb or *shrine* at Canterbury became the most famous place of pilgrimage in England, and all went ill with Henry until he himself went on pilgrimage to St. Thomas's shrine, where he

was scourged with rods as a sign of his penitence. Moreover, the cause that Becket had fought for was now so strong that Henry had to yield to it. From this time until the Reformation the clergyman who committed a crime was handed over to the courts of the Church, and as a consequence rarely got the punishment that his misdeeds deserved.

12. We have seen how great was Henry's power in France, and how strong his rule in England. But

Henry II. as Lord of the British Islands. we should also remember that he was the first king to have real authority over all parts of the British islands. We

know that King Edgar was lord over the Welsh and Scotch, and even over some of the Irish. But the later kings before the Conquest did not maintain this power, which at best had been little more than a name. However, the coming of the fierce and restless Normans to England led to a revival of these old claims by the Conqueror and his sons. The Normans soon began to swarm over the English borders into Wales, which was ruled

by so many petty princes that it could not unite to resist them. In Wales the Normans set up a large number of little states, and you can still see, especially in southern and eastern Wales, more Norman castles than in any other part of the British islands to show how real their rule was. Only in the mountains of Snowdon did the Welsh princes hold their own. Moreover,

Scotland over, in Scotland the marriage of Henry I. and the Scots king's daughter brought about such a close and friendly feeling between the English and Scottish courts, that the Normans were welcomed as cordially in the north as they were in the south, and, before long, many of the greatest Scottish nobles were Normans. Through them feudal laws were brought into Scotland, and close relations between the two realms established. One result of

-1171.]

Henry II. of Anjou

this was that several kings of Scots did .
English king.

13. In Henry II.'s time Norman adventure.
over into Ireland, and did there over again what
had already accomplished in Wales. They
found Ireland ruled by a multitude of petty
kings, and heads of *clans* or tribes, who
were always quarrelling with each other. They took
sides in these disputes and soon began to drive away
the Irish princes from power and set up little feudal
states over which they bore sway. Most of the richer
parts of Ireland were thus conquered by Norman
barons, while the Irish chieftains were driven from
the plains to rule among the mountains and moors,
whence they constantly made war against the foreign
intruders. At last the Normans were so hard pressed
that they called upon Henry to help them against the
native Irish. In 1171, after Becket's murder, Henry
himself went to Ireland, and found no one bold enough
to openly resist him. He was easily acknowledged as
its lord by Norman barons and Celtic clan leaders
alike. But the submission of the Irish lords was in
little more than in name. Henceforward the English
kings were called *Lords of Ireland*, though Ireland
really remained unconquered for many hundred years
more. During all that time its history is made up of
constant petty wars between the Norman barons and
Celtic chieftains among whom the island was divided.

The Norm
Conquer-
Ireland.

14. Henry's last years were full of trouble. He was
a kind father, but his sons were disobedient and
rebellious. They joined the French king,
the revolted nobles, and any other enemies
that their father happened to have, and
their ingratitude made the king's old age
very wretched. His eldest son, *Henry*, died a rebel,
but full of repentance for his misdeeds. The next,
Richard, was ever turbulent and restless. The third,

Henry's
family
troubles and
death.

was scourged & same who had won by marriage the
 Moreover, th Brittany, died before his father. Last
 now't f' stv/m, Henry's youngest and best beloved son,
 this tid the rebels. Henry gave up all hope on hearing
 com's news, and in 1189 fell ill and died.
 of th
 punis

CHAPTER IX

Richard I., the Lion Heart, 1189-1199

(Married Berengaria of Navarre)

Principal Persons :

Saladin, Sultan of Egypt and Syria ; Philip Augustus, King of France :
the Emperor Henry VI. ; the Viscount of Limoges.

Principal Dates :

1189. Accession of Richard I. ; the Third Crusade.

1194. Richard's second visit to England.

1199. Death of Richard I.

1. Richard I. was a fine, tall, strong man, with a fair complexion and bright yellow hair. He was a mighty warrior, and his bravery won for him the nickname of Lion Heart. He had plenty of energy, and though not so clever as his father, was shrewd and far-seeing. Though often more generous and unselfish than Henry II. in little things, he was in great matters a much worse king than his father. While Henry strove to make his kingdom better governed and more prosperous, Richard chiefly thought about winning glory for himself.

Character of
Richard I.

2. Brought up among the fierce nobles of his mother's land of Aquitaine, Richard knew and cared little about his island kingdom. He only twice visited England during his reign of ten years. On each occasion he came to get as much money as he could, and as soon as he had filled his pockets he hurried away again. But Richard was shrewd enough to leave England to itself. All through

England
under
Richard I.'s
rule.

his reign *Justiciars* or prime ministers, trained up in Henry II.'s court, ruled England in the name of the absent king. So long as they sent him plenty of money, Richard gave them a free hand. The result showed what a great and permanent work had been accomplished by Henry II. Time had been when



Queen Berengaria.



Richard I.

a neglectful and absent king would have meant plunging all England into such trouble and confusion as had prevailed under Stephen. But there was now such a good system of governing the country that the ministers of the king were able to rule the land as strictly and sternly as any king could have done. Even without the monarch, Henry II.'s system

went on, so to say, by itself. There were not wanting men who tried to take advantage of the king's absence to gain power for themselves, but the king's justiciars were able to put down all rebellions and keep the country in peace. Their worst trouble was with the king's younger brother, John, who rebelled against Richard and did his best to stir up confusion. But John was quickly rendered powerless, and Richard generously forgave him.

3. At the moment when Richard came to the throne all Europe was roused to arms by the preaching of what was called a *Crusade*. A Crusade was a holy war fought against the enemies of the Christian faith, and was so called because those who took part in it, the Crusaders, wore a cross sewn on their outer garment as a sign that they had undertaken the holy work. The *First Crusade* had been proclaimed in 1095 in the reign of William Rufus. Christians had long been shocked that Jerusalem and the other holy places in Palestine, where Christ had lived and suffered, were in the hands of the Mohammedans, the great enemies of the Christian faith in the East. Things got worse when the Turks, the most brutal and cruel of the Mohammedans, became lords of Jerusalem somewhere about the time of our Norman Conquest. It was the fashion of those days for men to go on *pilgrimages*.



Effigy of a Knight in the Temple Church, London, showing Armour of the End of the Twelfth Century. (From Hollis's *Monumental Effigies*.)

or pious journeys, to places famous in sacred history, and no pilgrimage was thought so meritorious as the long and difficult journey to Bethlehem, where our Lord was born, and to Jerusalem, where His sepulchre or burial-place was still shown. But the Turks robbed and maltreated the Christian pilgrims, and made their presence in Palestine almost impossible. This roused up great indignation all over Europe, and led to warriors of every land banding themselves together to drive the unbeliever out of Palestine and restore Christian rule in the places sanctified by Christ's earthly presence. Thus was the First Crusade started, which succeeded so well that it expelled the Turks from Palestine and set up a Christian kingdom of Jerusalem. Duke Robert of Normandy, the Conqueror's eldest son, was one of the heroes of the First Crusade.

4. The kingdom of Jerusalem did not flourish very long. though another Crusade, called the *Second Crusade*, was sent after about fifty years, to strengthen it. At last a very brave and generous Sultan of Egypt and Syria, named *Saladin*, revived the Mohammedan power and drove the Christians out of Jerusalem. There was a great cry of horror all over Europe when it was learned that the holy

The Third
Crusade.

city was once more in the hands of the infidel. A new Crusade, the *Third Crusade*, was proclaimed by the Pope in order to win back Jerusalem for the Cross. Richard himself was eager to play a prominent part in it, and after raising as much money as he could in his brief visit to England, he sailed for the East at the head of a gallant army. Every Christian nation was represented in the crusading host. Among the leaders was *Philip Augustus*, the King of France, the old ally of Richard in the days when both fought against Henry II.

5. Richard won several battles over Saladin, in which

he performed wonderful feats of valour, fighting fierce hand-to-hand fights, and marching great distances through the burning sands of Syria, clad in the heavy steel armour of the western knight. His successes gave the Christian kingdom in Palestine another hundred years of life. But with all his courage and skill he could not conquer Jerusalem, though he came within sight of its walls. But he resolutely turned away his face from the holy city, saying that if he were not able to enter its gates as conqueror, he was not worthy to cast his eyes upon it. He made a truce with Saladin by which Christian pilgrims were allowed to go to Jerusalem, and took ship for home.

Richard I.
and the
Third
Crusade.

6. The disputes of the Crusaders had done much to damage the crusading cause. Philip of France quarrelled fiercely with Richard and hurried back to France, where, in secret alliance with John, he plundered and invaded Richard's continental dominions. The ill-will of the French king now prevented Richard from going home by the most direct way through France, so he sailed up the Adriatic and thence crossed over the Alps to Germany. He was soon, however, stopped and shut up in prison by a German nobleman who had quarrelled with him in Palestine, and who handed him over to the Emperor *Henry VI.* Henry kept Richard in prison until an enormous sum of money was raised in England and paid over as the king's ransom. Then Richard was set free, and after more than five years' absence again appeared in England in 1194.

Richard's
captivity in
Germany.

7. Richard was full of wrath with the French king, and resolved to make Philip suffer for his treacherous conduct. After raising as much money as he could he crossed over to France, and never came back to England. He spent the rest of his life in fighting the French

Richard's
wars against
France, and
death.

king, but he gained no very great successes against him. At last he met his end in a petty quarrel with one of his own vassals, the *Viscount of Limoges*, who had discovered a hidden treasure and refused to share it with the king. Richard at once besieged the viscount in his castle of *Châlus*, but was slain by an arrow shot from the castle wall. He was not a good king, but his brother and successor reigned so badly that men soon had cause to mourn for Richard the Lion Heart.

CHAPTER X

John Lackland, 1199-1216 (Married Isabella of Angoulême)

Principal Persons :

Arthur of Brittany; Philip Augustus, King of France, and his son Louis, afterwards Louis VIII.; Pope Innocent III.; Stephen Langton, Archbishop of Canterbury; Pandulf, Envoy of Innocent III.

Principal Dates :

- 1199. Accession of John.
- 1204. Loss of Normandy.
- 1213. John becomes the Pope's vassal.
- 1215. Magna Carta granted.
- 1216. Invasion of Louis of France, and death of John.

1. The nearest heir to Richard I. was *Arthur of Brittany*, son of Geoffrey, the third son of Henry II. But Arthur was a boy, and the barons preferred to be ruled by a grown man. Accordingly Arthur's claims were passed over, and John, Henry II.'s youngest son, became King John. He was as wicked a man as William Rufus, as cruel, as immoral, and as cunning. But he was a far worse ruler than the strong and capable Red King. He was cowardly, lazy, and fickle. He thought little of the real interest even of the crown, as compared with the indulgence of the whim of the moment. For his people he cared nothing at all. His self-will and pride broke down that mighty

Accession
and char-
acter of
John.

Angevin Empire that had outlived even the neglect of his brother. His short reign is nothing but a catalogue of disasters. He lost Normandy and Anjou. He submitted humbly to the will of the Pope. He ruled so brutally over his subjects that they were forced to unite against him, and when he was cut off by death he had all but lost his throne.

2. In the early years of his reign, John ruled, like Richard and Henry II., over all western France. His

The loss of
Normandy
and Anjou.

nephew, Arthur, was a more dangerous rival in France than in England, but John soon shut him up in a castle and before long put him to death. But other enemies arose to revenge Arthur. Before this, John had treated his French subjects so badly that they complained of his acts to Philip of France, his overlord. Up to his accession, Philip had been John's closest friend, but he now became his bitter enemy. He issued his judgment that John had forfeited his possessions in France by reason of his tyrannous deeds. In 1201 a French army swooped down upon Normandy and overran it. John did nothing to defend the inheritance of his ancestors, which Philip now annexed to France. Anjou, the cradle of his house, was conquered by Philip with equal ease. Before the end of the reign nothing remained of the Angevin dominions in France save *Gascony*, the southern part of Queen Eleanor's Aquitanian inheritance.



King John.

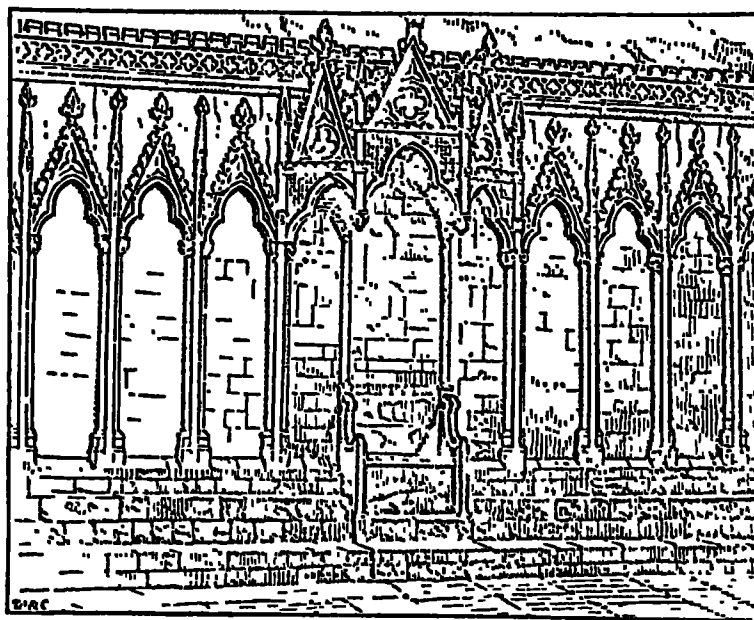
3. The loss of his continental dominions, though very discreditable to John, was in the long-run a gain to England. As long as the Norman nobles continued to hold estates in France as well as England, they could not easily become good Englishmen. But Philip's conquest of Normandy and Anjou forced them to decide between abandoning their French or their English lands, since they could not serve both King John and King Philip. Those who preferred to remain in England were henceforth cut off from the Continent. Though they long continued to follow French ways and talk the French tongue, they soon showed that they were as true Englishmen as those who had sprung from Anglo-Saxon ancestors. Thus the loss of Normandy completed that mixing together of Norman and English which, as we have seen, had already made great progress in the days of Henry II.

Results of
their loss.

4. No sooner had John been beaten by the French king than he plunged into a quarrel with the Church. In 1205 the Archbishop of Canterbury died, and there was a dispute as to who should be his successor. According to Church law, the *chapter* of the cathedral, that is, the body of clergy serving in Christ Church, Canterbury, had the right to elect the archbishop. Now, the chapter of Canterbury, like that of many other English cathedrals since Dunstan's time, consisted of a number of monks, whose head was called the prior. It had long been felt that it was not wise to permit the monks of Canterbury to choose freely the head of the whole English Church. The result of this feeling was that the kings had always had a large share in deciding to whom the great office was to fall. But John could not agree with the monks of Christ Church on this occasion, and both king and monks did their best to get the man of their choice made archbishop.

Disputed
election of
Canterbury.

5. In all cases of disputed ecclesiastical elections there was a final court of appeal in the Pope's court at Rome. Now the Pope in John's days was John's
quarrel with *Innocent III.*, one of the strongest, wisest, best, and most masterful of the Popes. On the case coming before him, Innocent set aside the choice both of the king and the monks, and himself persuaded some of the monks who had been sent to



The Prior's Seat, Chapter House, Canterbury, where the Elections of the Archbishops were made.

Rome to elect as their archbishop *Stephen Langton*, a very wise, learned, and high-minded Englishman, then living at Rome, as a *cardinal* of the Roman Church. It ought not to be forgotten that Langton, the Pope's nominee, was a much better man for the post than either the candidate of the king or that of the monks. But the Pope was over-eager to increase the power of the Church, and kings were becoming afraid of the constant fresh claims, which the Roman Church was making, to exercise jurisdiction within their kingdoms.

There was nothing strange therefore in John refusing to accept the Pope's choice. It was not, however, that John was influenced by high reasons of state, such as had inspired Henry I. to resist Anselm, and Henry II. to oppose Becket. He wanted to give the archbishopric to one of his unworthy servants, and feared, like Rufus in the case of Anselm, the advice and counsel of so good a man as Langton. Anyhow, John would not give way to the Pope, and, as the Pope would not yield to the king, a fierce conflict broke out between them.

6. After the contest had lasted some years, Innocent proclaimed what was called an *Interdict* over all England. It was one of the severest punishments which the Church could impose upon a country. By it all public worship was forbidden. The churches and churchyards were shut up. No bell was tolled. The dead were buried in unhallowed land without prayer or praise. The sacraments were refused save to the dying and to the new-born child, and in these cases were administered with as little pomp as was possible. It seemed as if God's favour were withdrawn from the land under interdict, and in that age of faith the loss of all the consolations of the Church was as grievous a thing as could be. But though the English groaned under their sorrow, the godless John was quite careless about the interdict. He exerted himself, however, to drive from the country such priests and bishops as obeyed the Pope's orders, and showed high favour to those clergy who ignored the interdict and went on with their services as before.

The
Interdict.

7. A year passed by and John still refused to yield. At last in 1209 Innocent declared John *excommunicate*, that is, cut off from all the services and sacraments of the Church. In those days the man excommunicated was shunned by

Excom-
munication
of John.

his fellows as an unclean person. But John laughed at excommunication as he had done at the interdict. Finally, Innocent fell back on a still more terrible weapon. He declared that John had forfeited his throne for his disobedience to the Church, and called on Philip of France to invade England, and carry out the sentence of the Roman court. Philip was already the close ally of the Pope, and was delighted to get a good excuse for conquering his rival's dominions. He prepared to execute Innocent's judgment, and the friends of the Pope in England were likely to welcome him as a deliverer.

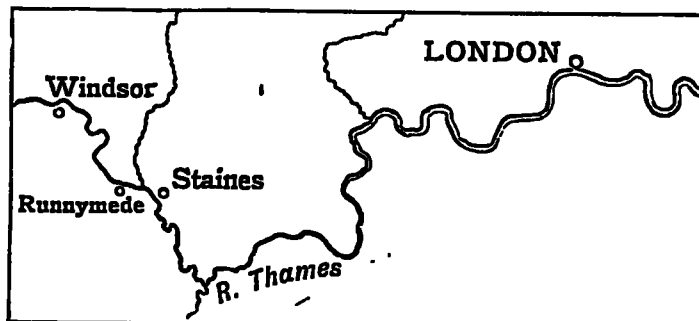
8. Seeing that he could no longer safely oppose the Pope, John gave up the struggle. He agreed to accept Langton as Archbishop of Canterbury, but Innocent required a more complete submission. In despair, John yielded to Innocent's demands. In 1213, at Dover, he surrendered his crown and kingdom to *Pandulf*, the Pope's envoy. He only received them back when he had promised to be the Pope's vassal. He took the feudal oaths of homage and fidelity to Innocent as to his overlord, and agreed to pay a tribute of a thousand marks a year to the Roman see. By this surrender John gave the Pope political as well as ecclesiastical rights over England. The land, which its kings had hitherto ruled without a master, was henceforth to depend upon the Pope in the same way that Gascony depended on France, or Wales on England. But John cared nothing for the disgrace of his surrender. He was quite satisfied to have avoided the French invasion, and was glad henceforth to have the Pope on his side.

9. During these years of trouble John had been reigning very badly. From the Norman Conquest up to this time the king had trusted to be supported by the people, whenever he had a quarrel with his

barons. But now the people began to fall away from John and to follow the barons in attacking the common tyrant. This was the easier, since the barons, after the loss of Normandy, had become more than half Englishmen.

Quarrel
between
John and his
barons.

Archbishop Langton wisely strove to bring together the different classes of the people, and within a very short time of John's submission to the Pope, barons and knights, townsmen and countrymen, all joined together to break down the tyranny of the king. In 1215 John saw that he could resist no longer, and submitted as abjectly to his people as he had formerly



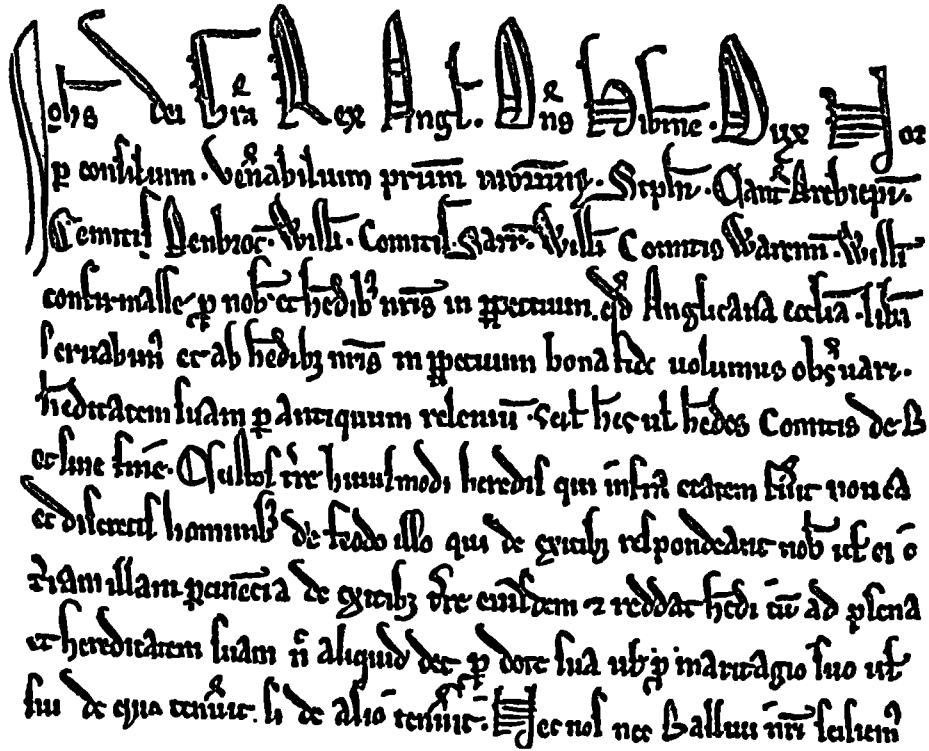
Walker & Cockerell sc.

yielded, like a coward, to the Pope. He met the leaders of the barons on a meadow, called *Runnymede*, by the banks of the Thames, between Windsor and Staines. There he sealed the terms of submission which the barons had drawn up for him.

10. This document was called *Magna Carta*, or the *Great Charter*, and is justly famous as the beginning of English liberty. Up to now the Norman kings had ruled over England like despots. But in the Great Charter John promised that henceforth the land should be ruled in a different way. He agreed that every Englishman's rights should be respected. The Church was to enjoy its full liberties and choose its own bishops freely. The barons were not to be oppressed by

The barons
wrest
Magna
Carta from
John.

excessive feudal dues. The towns were to enjoy freedom of trade. The harsh forest laws were to be made lighter. No fresh taxes or aids were to be raised without the consent of the great council of barons. Justice was to be denied to no man, and no free man was to be imprisoned or driven beyond sea save



A Facsimile of a Portion of Magna Carta.
(Showing the left-hand side of the opening lines.) (Scale of Original.)

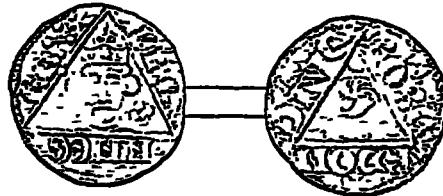
according to law. With the Great Charter begins that English constitution which we still enjoy.

11. John had no intention of keeping his word. He accepted the Charter to gain time, but he told the Pope what he had done, and persuaded Innocent to declare the Charter invalid since it had been won by force, and was against the rights of the Pope as overlord. As soon as he could, John repudiated his promise. He raised an army of bloodthirsty foreign soldiers, with whose aid

John's war
with his
barons, who
call in Louis
of France.

what he had done, and persuaded Innocent to declare the Charter invalid since it had been won by force, and was against the rights of the Pope as overlord. As soon as he could, John repudiated his promise. He raised an army of bloodthirsty foreign soldiers, with whose aid

he went to war against his barons. For once John showed energy and activity. Before long he pressed the barons so hard that they were forced to call in foreign aid. They asked Louis, the eldest son of Philip of France, to come over and be their king, and Louis at once accepted their offer. But even with French help the barons had still a hard task before them. In 1216, however, John suddenly died in the midst of the struggle, cut off, it was said, through gorging himself with peaches and new ale. He had only reigned sixteen years, yet he had failed in everything that he had attempted. It was no wonder that men called him in shame John Lackland. With him the Norman despotism, which had done good work in making England peaceable and united, and was now no longer needed, came to a wretched end.



A Silver Penny of John, struck at Dublin.

BOOK III

THE LATER PLANTAGENETS, 1216-1399

CHAPTER XI

Henry III. of Winchester, 1216-1272

(Married Eleanor of Provence)

Principal Persons :

Louis of France ; William Marshall, Earl of Pembroke ; Archbishop Langton ; Hubert de Burgh ; Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester ; Eleanor, Countess of Leicester ; the Lord Edward, the King's son.

Principal Dates :

- 1216. Accession of Henry III.
- 1217. Battle of Lincoln.
- 1232. Fall of Hubert de Burgh.
- 1258. Provisions of Oxford.
- 1264. Battle of Lewes.
- 1265. Montfort's Parliament and Battle of Evesham.
- 1272. Death of Henry III.

1. John's eldest son was only nine years old at his father's death ; but his friends at once crowned him King Henry III. The barons, who had called in Louis of France, refused to recognise the little king, and the civil war went on for some time longer. It was soon found, however, that Henry's side grew stronger, while Louis' supporters gradually fell away from him. The innocent boy-king had no share in the crimes of his father. His friends took care to show that they had little sympathy with John's policy. They issued the

The
expulsion
of Louis of
France.

Great Charter once more as the free-will grant of the new monarch. This wise act took away any good reason for opposing Henry's rule. The barons had called in Louis to uphold the Charter against John, and now John's son himself was on the side of the Charter. There was not in those days the intense feeling of dislike for Frenchmen that grew up later in England, and most of the upper classes in England still talked French. But they were beginning to feel like Englishmen, and felt sorry that the day might come when England would be ruled by the King of France. So all the wisest and best men in England gradually went over to Henry's side. Among his chief supporters were Archbishop Stephen Langton and *William Marshall*, Earl of Pembroke, the noblest of the English barons. The Pope's *legate* or representative in England was also strongly for the little king, and the Pope himself had now given up his objections to the Great Charter. The result was that Louis' cause began to lose ground. In 1217 he was beaten at the *Battle of Lincoln*, and soon after he left England.

2. William Marshall now restored peace and prosperity to the land, which had suffered so severely from the horrors of civil war. But he was an old man, and died in 1219. However, the Justiciar, *Hubert de Burgh*, now stepped into his place. He governed England until 1232, and succeeded in bringing back the system of strong rule that had prevailed under Henry II. The greedy foreigners, who



Henry III.

The rule of
William
Marshall
and Hubert
de Burgh.

had been the chief supporters of John, were forced to give up their lands and castles. The worst of them were driven away from England.

3. Henry III. was pious and gentle, a good husband and father, and a faithful friend. He was the first king after the Conquest who revered English saints, and the first who called his children by old-fashioned English names, such as Edward and Edmund, instead of the French names, like William, Henry, and Richard, that had so long been exclusively used. He loved to build fair churches after the new pointed or *Gothic* style, which had just come over from France into England, and was now used instead of the heavier round-arched Norman fashion of building. He was a great admirer of Edward the Confessor, after whom he named his eldest son, and in whose honour he began to rebuild Westminster Abbey, pulling down the noble church which Edward himself had set up, and putting in its place the Westminster Abbey which still exists. This is one of the finest of our Gothic churches, with its lofty nave, vaulted roof of stone propped up by flying buttresses, and its beautifully carved and ornamented north front. It is not, perhaps, so solemn and grand as the best Norman churches, but it is far lighter, better proportioned, and more artistic.

4. Henry, though a fairly good man, was a weak king, having many of the faults of Edward the Confessor, as well as most of his virtues. He was too jealous to let his ministers govern freely in his name, and on growing up to manhood he was ungrateful enough to drive away from power the faithful Hubert de Burgh. But Henry was not hard-working or vigorous enough to be himself the real ruler of England. He trusted too much to favourites, and especially to foreign favourites, who knew nothing of England and English ways. He gave

Character
and policy of
Henry III.
Henry III.'s
foreign
favourites.

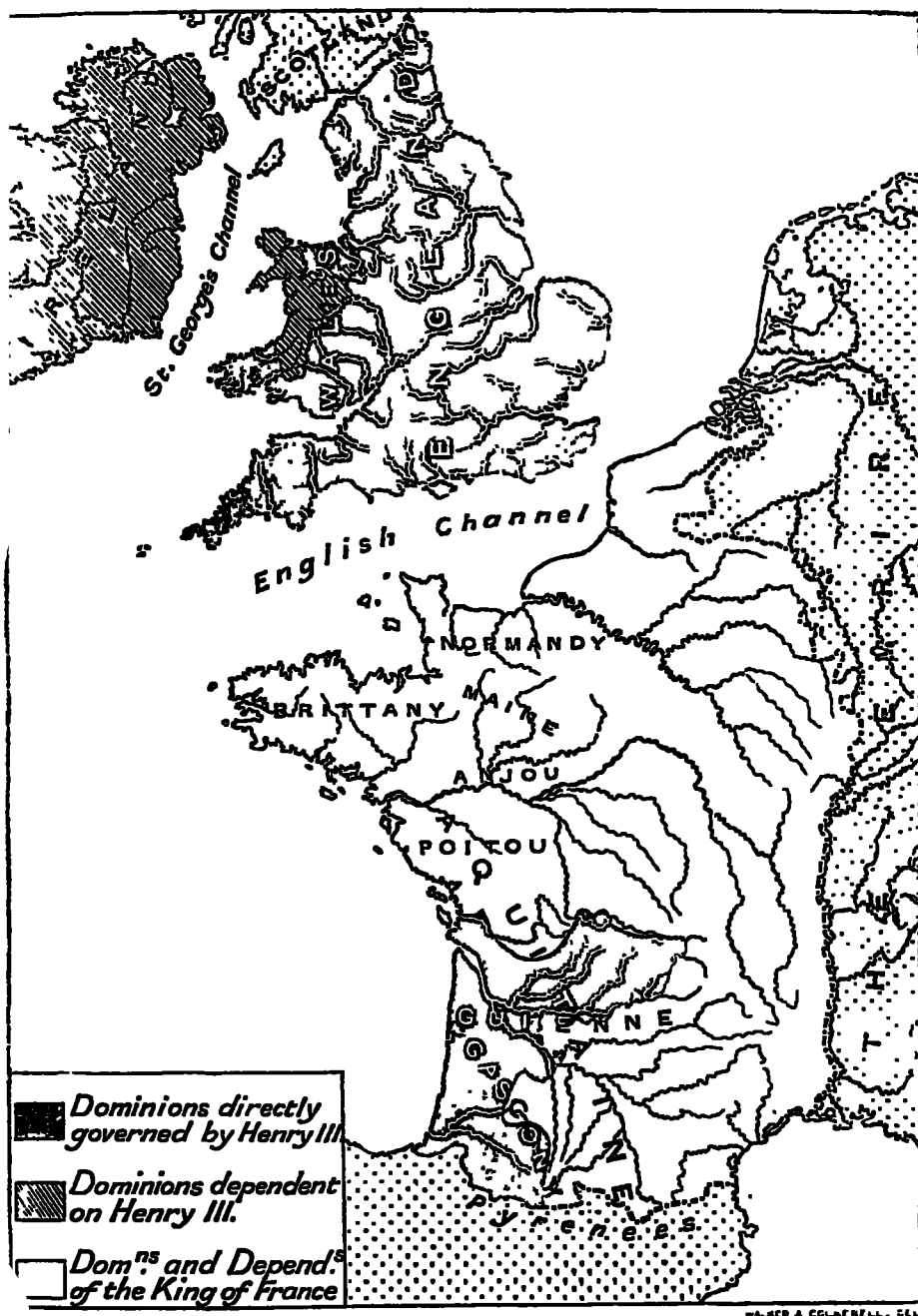
great posts in England to the uncles and other kinsfolk of his wife, *Eleanor of Provence*. He also favoured unduly his half brothers and sisters, the children of his mother, John's queen, by her second marriage with a great baron of central France. Nobly-born adventurers flocked from abroad to the court of the good-natured, lavish English king. Among these was a clever young Frenchman, *Simon of Montfort*, who married Henry's sister Eleanor, and was recognised as Earl of Leicester.

5. Neither Henry nor his foreign friends knew how to govern England. The promises made that the king would rule according to the Great Charter were not kept. Time after time the barons ^{Henry III.'s misrule.} joined together and forced Henry to renew his pledges. The king was always willing to do this, especially if he could get money by it, but he was too feeble to know how to keep his word. The consequence was that the barons gradually became very angry with him. They were no longer, like their forefathers, content to let the king govern England for them. During Henry's childhood they had practically ruled England themselves, and they were not disposed to let the foreigners take their places as the king's advisers. They saw that the country was badly governed. The king collected plenty of taxes, but he wasted his revenues on his foreign friends, and did not keep good order. Moreover, being a great friend of the Pope's, he allowed the Pope's legates and agents to extort money from the English clergy and laity and send it to Rome. It now became a common custom for the Popes to appoint foreigners to English bishoprics and other high posts in the Church. And many of these foreigners cared nothing for their English flocks, but looked upon their position as giving them large revenues without requiring any corresponding work from them.

6. There was much grumbling against Henry and the foreigners, and many councils of barons were held to discuss what was to be done. Growth of baronial opposition. These councils, which in Norman times had taken the place of the old English *Witenagemot*, were now beginning to be called *Parliaments*, that is, meetings for talking and discussion. But the Parliament of these days did not represent the whole people. Like the ancient *Witenagemot* or our modern House of Lords, it consisted only of the great men—the earls and barons, the heads of the laity, and the bishops and abbots, the chiefs of the clergy. During Henry's minority these councils had grown accustomed to exercise power; and the Great Charter had said that the king could raise no new taxes without their consent. Henry's constant demands for money gave the baronial Parliament its chance, and in Simon of Montfort, the king's brother-in-law, it found a capable leader.

7. Earl Simon had come to England as a foreigner to seek his fortune, and his marriage closely connected him with the king. But he was The Provisions of Oxford. so much wiser than Henry that he soon grew disgusted with his brother-in-law's foolish ways and quarrelled with him. Simon was an ambitious, hot-tempered, violent man, but he loved the people, and soon proved a better patriot than the English-born barons themselves. Under his lead a Parliament met at Oxford in 1258, which the king's friends called the *Mad Parliament*. But the barons of this Parliament knew very well what they were about. They drew up a new system of government called the *Provisions of Oxford*. By these laws all the foreigners were banished from England, and the government taken away from the king and given to a committee of fifteen barons.

8. Henry was forced to submit, and for some years



THE ENGLISH DOMINIONS IN 1259.

the *Fifteen* ruled in his name. But they governed in such a selfish and narrow way that many people began to complain loudly.

Simon did what he could, but some of the nobles grew jealous of his bold and overbearing policy. The result was a division among the barons that gave Henry a chance of winning back power. The king himself was not clever enough to make the most of his opportunities, but his eldest son, the Lord Edward, was now a grown man, and did much to supply his father's weakness. At last open hostilities broke out between the king and the barons. These were called the *Barons' Wars*. It showed how much the king had gained that he was able to fight at all. But he was not yet able to wage war successfully. The barons now united again, and Montfort proved to be as good a general as he had been a statesman. In 1264 he won a complete victory over the king and his son at *Lewes* in Sussex. Henry and Edward were both taken prisoners, and the government of England again fell to the barons.

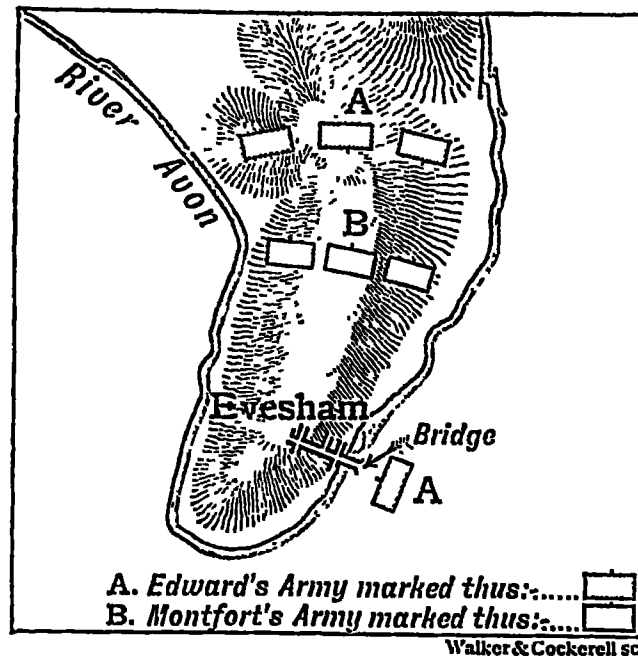
9. Montfort was now in a much better position than in the early years of the struggle. His plan had long been to take the people into partnership with him, and he was at length able to carry out his wishes. In 1265 he summoned a Parliament, which, unlike the Parliament of 1258, was no mere council of barons. Along with the barons and bishops he called upon every shire, city, and borough to send two representatives to join with the nobles and prelates. This action of his has made the Parliament of 1265 very famous in our history. It has been called the *first House of Commons*, and Montfort has been named the *creator of the House of Commons*. But we should not forget that Montfort's policy here was not altogether a sudden change. For fifty years it had been the custom

for the king to call together representatives of the shire, or, as they were called, *knights of the shire*, and to take their advice or listen to their complaints. And when the king had wanted to get advice on trading matters, he had already more than once summoned in the same way representatives of the different cities and boroughs. The new thing now was that Montfort joined both the shire and the borough representatives in a single gathering. Moreover, he did not call upon this council to deal with small local matters, or to discuss how unimportant things should be done. He tried to find out from it what the people at large really thought as to how the government of the country should be carried on. The result was that, ever since this period, the Commons as well as the Lords had something to say in all high questions of State. As Magna Carta had declared, the king's power was to be limited. It was, however, to be limited, not only by the barons and bishops, but by the lesser landholders, the men of business, and the smaller people as well.

10. Earl Simon's rule did not last very long. With all his greatness he was so fierce and overbearing that it was hard for any one to work very long with him. Before 1265 was over he was again quarrelling with many of the barons, and these disputes gave the king and his son another chance. Edward escaped from prison and joined the lords who were discontented with Montfort. Before long they had raised a large number of soldiers, and were marching triumphantly through the Severn valley from the west to the Midlands. Earl Simon was with his army at *Evesham* on the Avon. This town is situated on a peninsula formed by a loop of the river. Edward, with the main body of his troops, cleverly took possession of the isthmus, while another part of his army broke down the bridge which communicated between

The Battle
of Evesham.

Evesham and the other bank. Montfort saw that his retreat was cut off. 'Commend your souls to God,' he cried to his soldiers, 'for our bodies are the Lord Edward's.' The strife then began, and Montfort's troops, though fighting bravely, were soon overpowered. Montfort himself died on the field of battle. The poor worshipped him as a saint and a martyr, for



The Battle of Evesham.

they felt sure that he had loved them, and had done his best for them.

11. Edward now restored his father to liberty and the throne. The rest of the old king's reign was as peaceful as the middle part of it had been stormy. But Edward was now the real ruler of England, and he was wise enough to govern more according to the ideas of Earl Simon than according to the former fashion of his father. Before long things got so quiet that Edward was able to leave England and go on a crusade against the Mohammedans. He was still

-1272]

Henry III. of Winchester

109

away in the East when, in 1272, Henry III. ended his long reign. During his lifetime the old Norman despotism had faded slowly into the free, popular monarchy of the real conqueror of Earl Simon, who now became King Edward I.

.

CHAPTER XII

Edward I., 1272-1307

(Married (1) Eleanor of Castile; (2) Margaret of France)

Principal Persons :

Llywelyn, Prince of Wales; Alexander III., King of Scots; Margaret of Norway; John Balliol, King of Scots; Robert Bruce, the Claimant, and Robert Bruce, his grandson, King of Scots; Sir William Wallace.

Principal Dates :

- 1272. Accession of Edward I.
- 1282. Conquest of North Wales.
- 1292. John Balliol made King of Scots.
- 1295. The Model Parliament.
- 1296. First Conquest of Scotland.
- 1297. The Confirmation of the Charters.
- 1298. Battle of Falkirk.
- 1306. Rising of Robert Bruce.
- 1307. Death of Edward I.

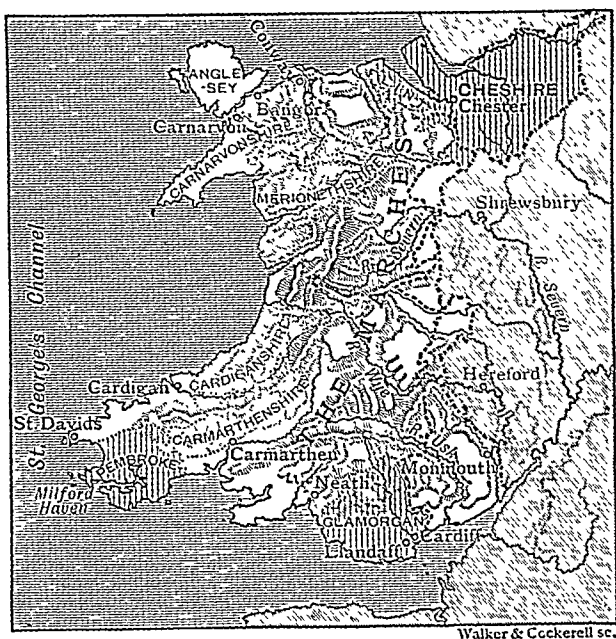
1 Edward I. was the first king after the Conquest to have an English name and an English heart. Character of Edward I. He was clever enough to profit by the hard teaching which he had received during the Barons' Wars. He loved power too well to part with it willingly. But he saw that if he wished to be a successful ruler, he must make his policy popular. Thus, though every inch a king, Edward strove to carry on the great idea of Earl Simon's of taking the people into a sort of partnership with him. The result was that the people trusted and followed him. He found that he could thus get

more of his own way than by always wrangling with his subjects. A tall, fine, powerful man, a magnificent swordsman and sportsman, a strenuous and brave general, and a loyal and honourable gentleman, he drew people to his side by his wisdom, his popularity, and his graciousness. He was proud of his straightforwardness, and boasted that he always kept his word. He had two chief faults. One was his hot temper, which sometimes made him hard and almost cruel. The other was a curious narrowness of mind, which made him sometimes look at the letter rather than the spirit of his promises. He never told lies, like his father; but he did not mind twisting the plain meaning of what he said, provided that he never actually violated his word. These defects, together with an ambition that led him to undertake more than he was able to carry out, show us why he sometimes failed. But with all his faults, Edward well deserves the title, which has been given him, of the *Greatest of the Plantagenets*.

2. Edward was proclaimed king in his absence. Though nearly two years passed before he got back to England, the calm which had endured since the end of the Barons' Wars was never broken. But trouble was already brewing in one quarter. *Llywelyn*, Prince of Wales, refused to perform the homage due from him to the new king. He was the descendant of those lords of Snowdon who had in earlier days maintained their freedom against the Norman barons who had conquered so much of southern and eastern Wales. But as time went on the Norman power had waned. Though Norman nobles called *Lords Marcher* still ruled over those parts of the land called the *March of Wales*, *Llywelyn* was master of all the north of Wales, and of some of the south, and his claim to be Prince of all Wales had been acknowledged by the English. He now

The conquest
of the Prin-
cipality of
Wales.

rashly strove to make himself altogether independent, but Edward soon proved too strong for him. On two occasions Edward led an army into the mountains of Snowdon. The first expedition crushed Llywelyn's power. The second, in 1282, led to his death in battle.

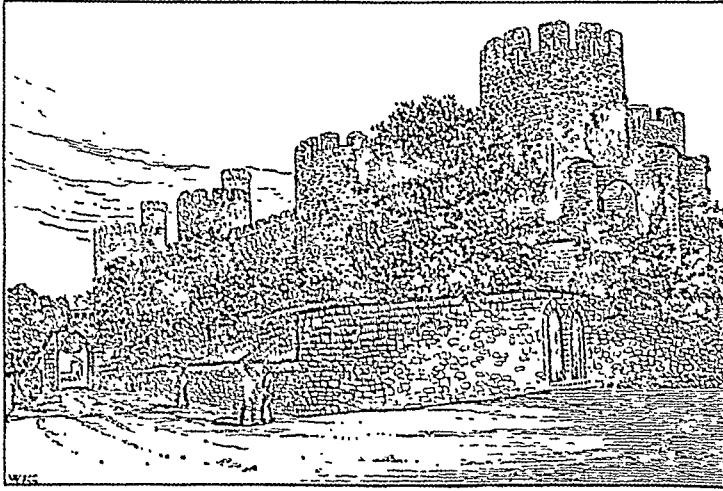


- | | |
|---|-------------------------------|
| The Principality | The smaller marcher lordships |
| The Palatine counties | English shire ground |
| ----- Modern boundary between England & Wales | |

Wales and the Marches between the Conquest of Edward I.
and the Union under Henry VIII.

and the conquest of all his lands. Thus triumphant over all Wales, Edward allowed the Lords Marcher to continue their rule in the March of Wales, but annexed the *Principality*, that is, Llywelyn's dominions, to the crown. He divided the Principality into five counties, like the shires of England, and added another new

county, Flintshire, to the Earldom of Chester, which had previously fallen, like the Principality, into the king's hands. In all his acts Edward strove to deal fairly with the Welsh, though he did not understand them well enough to respect their feelings. However, after a time Wales settled down peaceably. To secure his conquest Edward built towns and castles in Wales, and filled them with English traders and soldiers. You can still



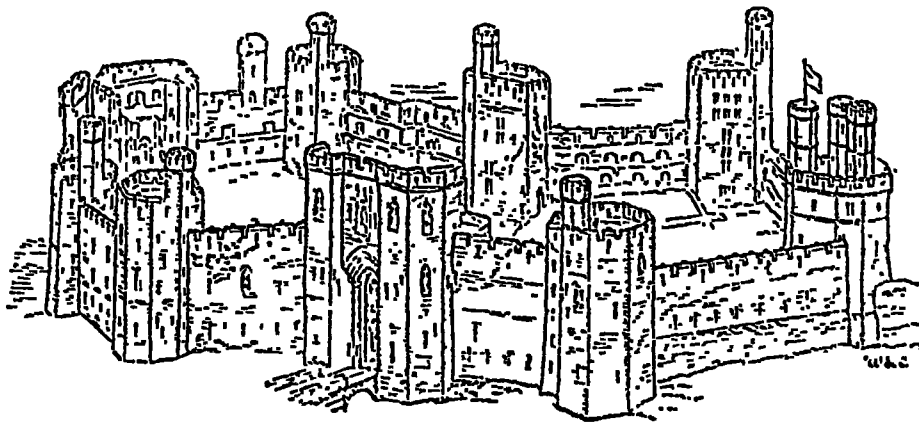
Conway Castle.

see at Conway the walls and castle erected with this object by Edward. In one of Edward's castles, at Carnarvon, his son, the future Edward II., was now born, though the grand castle, whose ruins we can still admire, was then only just beginning to arise. Many years later, the young Edward was made Prince of Wales by his father. After this it gradually became the fashion to create the king's eldest son Prince of Wales, and that custom has lasted down to our own days.

3. A few years after his conquest of Wales, Edward

had a chance of trying to carry out a similar attempt in Scotland. Like Wales, Scotland had become stronger and freer than in Norman times. But while in Wales Welshman and Englishman still kept apart, in Scotland the different races inhabiting the country were getting more closely drawn together. The original Scots were, like the modern Highlanders, Celts, and talked a language very like Irish. But they had lived north of the Clyde and the Forth. Not long before the Norman Conquest the Scottish kings had acquired the northern part of the old English kingdom of Northumbria. This was called *Lothian*, and ran from the

Scotland
up to the
death of
Alex-
ander III.



Carnarvon Castle.

(From Clark's *Military Architecture of the Middle Ages*.)

Forth to the Tweed. Also the northern part of the old kingdom of the Strathclyde Welsh, the lands between the Clyde and the Solway, fell under the Scots kings' rule. By this time the Welsh of the south-west, the Norman nobles, who had settled all over the land, and the English-speaking dwellers in Lothian were now sufficiently united with the Celts of the North for all to call themselves Scots. Thus the English, Welsh, and Normans in the north became the Lowland Scots of later history, speaking a form of the English language which was now beginning to be called the Lowland

Scots tongue. The original Scots were henceforth called the *Highlanders*, and their language more often *Gaelic* than Scots. Both Highlanders and Lowlanders were ruled by one king, and so long as the kings were powerful and wise, the country grew in wealth and civilisation.

4. Since Henry II.'s time England and Scotland had been generally on good terms, and the royal houses had more than once been joined together by marriage. But these happy days were now ended. In 1286 *Alexander III.*, King of Scots, met his death by an accident. Three years later (1289), his granddaughter and successor, *Margaret of Norway*, died before she so much as visited Scotland. Her death left none but distant kinsmen to claim the crown. Each of the several rivals had his following. It seemed as if civil war could alone decide who was to be the next king.

5. The Scots resolved to avoid a long struggle by asking Edward to decide which of the claimants had the best right to the throne. Edward agreed to undertake this task. He, however, required that all the Scottish barons and every claimant to the throne should take oaths of fealty to him as their overlord before he began to examine the question. Unless this condition were fulfilled, he refused to act.

6. The Scots were much alarmed at Edward's request. In former days there had been many occasions on which the kings of Scots had recognised the English king as their overlord. But for a hundred years there had been no clear case of their doing this. It is true that every Scottish king had taken oaths to be faithful to the English king. But the kings of Scots had also held large estates in England, and it was not always certain whether they had done homage for

The Scottish
Succession.

The Scots
appeal to
Edward.

Edward
acknowledged by
the Scots as
their over-
lord.

their English lands or for their kingdom. As Scotland grew stronger and richer the Scots became more unwilling to acknowledge a foreign king as their superior. But however much the Scots disliked Edward's claim, they did not hesitate very long. They felt that, if Edward did not settle the question of the succession, Scotland would fall into a terrible state of confusion. Accordingly Edward was recognised as overlord of Scotland. When each of the claimants had taken oaths of fealty to him, he appointed the judges who were to determine the great suit.

7. The trial took place at Berwick-on-Tweed in 1292. The two chief claimants were *John Balliol* and *Robert Bruce*. After careful and impartial examination of the case, Edward decided that John Balliol was the rightful heir of Alexander III. Accordingly Balliol did homage to Edward, and was at once crowned King of Scots. All Scotland gladly accepted him as king, and it looked as if the dispute were peacefully settled.

Edward
makes John
Balliol King
of Scots.

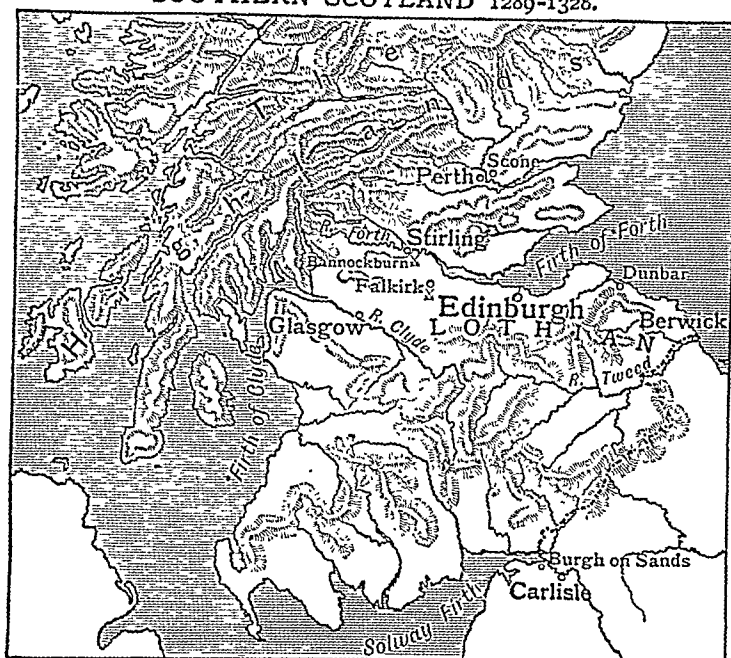
8. Very soon troubles broke out between Edward and the Scots. In the old days the overlordship of England over Scotland had signified very little. But to Edward it now meant a great deal. He thought that the Scots ought to recognise his power in all the ways in which he himself as Duke of Aquitaine recognised the power of the King of France. Now it was the custom in Edward's French dominions that when people went to law with each other, the losers in the suit, if they were not satisfied with the decision, went to the court of the King of France and got him to try the case over again. This was called *appealing* to the court of the overlord. Edward thought it was only right that Scotsmen should have the same power to appeal from the Scottish law courts to those of the English king. Very soon

The question
of appeals.

Scots, who were beaten in their lawsuits, called upon Edward to hear their case over again, and he gladly agreed to do so. But King John declared that he had never promised to allow any such power to Edward, and refused to permit Scots to appeal to English courts.

9. Edward looked upon John's action as rebellion,

SOUTHERN SCOTLAND 1289-1328.



and in 1296 led an army into Scotland to punish his disobedient vassal. King John surrendered after a very poor resistance, and Edward deprived him of his throne. The English king now treated Scotland just as he had treated Wales after the death of Llywelyn. He declared it annexed to his dominions, and appointed English nobles to rule the Scots in his name. As a sign

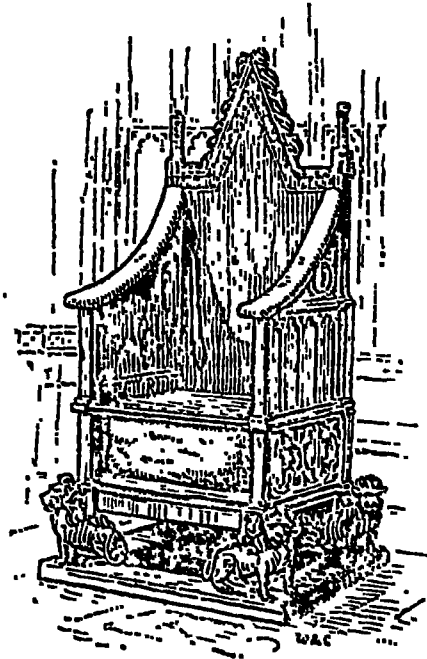
Edward's
first conquest
of Scotland.

of his triumph, he took from Scotland to England an ancient stone upon which the Scottish kings had always sat when they were crowned at *Scone*, near Perth. This stone, which it was believed was the same as that which Jacob used as a pillow when he saw a vision of angels, never got back to Scotland. It was built up in the new coronation chair of the English kings, which Edward I. now caused to be made. You can still see his stone and chair at Westminster Abbey. Ever since Edward's time they have been used for the crowning of English kings, but since the reign of James I. the English kings have also been kings of Scots. Thus the stone has again been employed for its ancient purpose.

10. Though Edward strove to rule Scotland well, many of those who governed in his name were hard
Wallace's rising. and cruel men.

Moreover, the Scots hated the English rule even when it was fair and just. They soon rose in revolt under the leadership of a brave and fierce knight named *Sir William Wallace*.

Before long Wallace drove the English out of Scotland, and cruelly plundered and devastated the English border. In 1298 Edward once more led an army into Scotland, and fought against Wallace the *Battle of Falkirk*. The English knights strove to win the day by a cavalry charge. Wallace's soldiers were nearly all on foot, and stood together in close order, protected by a wall of pikes from the fierce



Coronation Chair,
Westminster Abbey.

rush of the mail-clad English host. After a long struggle the English won a complete victory. Wallace fled from the field, and henceforth had all he could do to keep himself out of Edward's hands. English rule was restored over Scotland, and Edward drew up a wise plan for its government, by which the Scots were to send representatives to the English Parliament. Years after the battle of Falkirk, Wallace was caught by Edward. In 1305 he was taken to London and beheaded as a traitor. The English looked upon Wallace as a robber and murderer, and dealt very harshly with him. But the Scots almost worshipped him as their national hero. Before long poets wandered through the land, singing of the great deeds which he had done in upholding Scottish independence.

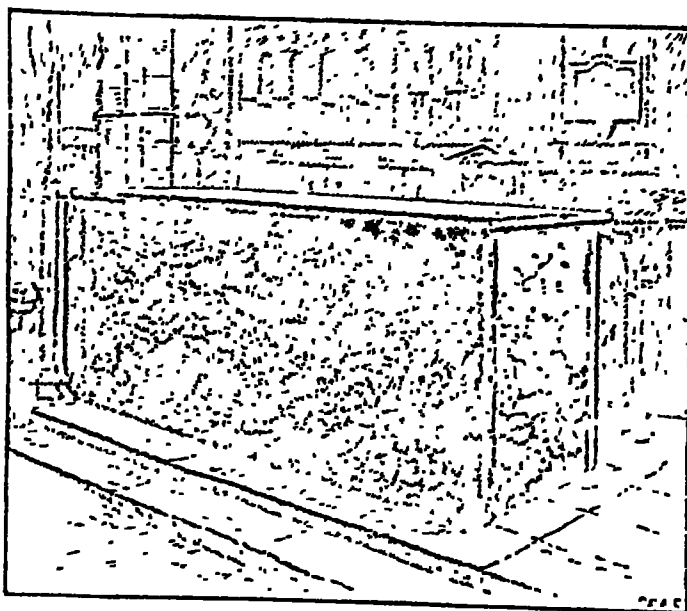
11. Scotland was now conquered a second time, but once more Edward found that he could not hold his conquest. *Robert Bruce*, grandson of the competitor for the throne against John Balliol, now put himself at the head of the Scots. For years he had been on Edward's side, but in 1306 he joined the popular party. He soon showed himself to be a shrewd statesman and a prudent general. The Scots crowned him as their king at Scone, and Edward found that he had to conquer Scotland for a third time. He was now an old man, and his health was breaking up. But in his fierce wrath, he took the field in person against Bruce. He had not yet crossed the Border when a fatal sickness ended his career. He died at *Burgh-on-Sands*, near Carlisle, ordering his son with his last breath never to rest until he had conquered Bruce and the Scots. His body was taken to Westminster for burial. There, among the gorgeous carved tombs of smaller kings and princes, you can see the plain slab of stone which covers the remains of the greatest of the Plantagenets. Upon it is written this inscription in Latin—'Here

Rising of
Robert
Bruce.

lies Edward I., the hammer of the Scots. Keep Troth.'

12. Edward I. must not simply be remembered as the conqueror of Wales and the would-be conqueror of Scotland. The best side of his reign is to be seen in England itself, where he ever kept good peace and passed wise laws. But perhaps the most important thing to remember about Edward in England is that he was the real *founder of our modern English Constitution*. In the worst days of his reign, when the Scots

The Model
Parliament.
The Confirmation of the
Charters.



Tomb of Edward I. in Westminster Abbey.

were in arms against him, he found himself beset with troubles on every side. The French king helped the Scots and tried to conquer Gascony. The Welsh rose in revolt, the barons refused to fight, and the Church began to protest against Edward's attacks on its liberties. Edward saw that he could only get over his difficulties by reviving Simon de Montfort's policy of consulting the people. Accordingly in 1295 he summoned the *first Complete or Model Parliament*

that ever met in England. In it every *Estate*, or section of the people, was fully represented. At first there were three Estates—the clergy, the nobles, and the commons. But before very long the higher clergy, the bishops and abbots, took their seats with the barons, while the lower clergy ceased to be represented in Parliament at all. But the ‘lords spiritual and temporal,’ who together became our *House of Lords*, are nowadays what corresponds to the Estates of clergy and nobles. The knights of the shires and the members elected by the cities and boroughs sat together in the *House of Commons* as the spokesmen of the Estate of the Commons. Thus our Constitution was established with king, lords, and commons, very much as it is now. And we should never forget that we owe this Constitution to Edward I., even more than to Simon de Montfort.

13. Before very long, Edward was compelled to go further than he wished in the way of concessions to his people. In 1297 he was forced once more to confirm the Great Charter, and to add to it new clauses by which he promised to raise no more fresh taxes without the consent of Parliament. With this *Confirmation of the Charters* of 1297 we may say that the long struggle for the charter which began at Runnymede came to an end. Even against a strong king like Edward I. the English people was able to enforce its will. It now secured that even the fiercest of English kings should rule according to law and not according to his own wishes. Henceforth England became a limited and constitutional monarchy, controlled by a free and representative Parliament.

CHAPTER XIII

England in the Twelfth and Thirteenth Centuries

1. By the end of the reign of Edward I. the new England that had begun with the Norman Conquest had attained a very great amount of prosperity. The English nation. The amalgamation of English and Norman had long been complete. Though French was still a good deal spoken at court and by the upper classes, the king and the nobles were quite as English at heart as the poorest of the Commons. The whole reign of Edward I. is a sufficient proof of this.

2. The vast majority of Englishmen lived in the country, and gained their livelihood by agriculture. The chief wealth consisted in land, and The nobles and knights. the great nobles owed their importance to their being large possessors of landed estate. There were also a large number of gentlemen who held smaller estates, and are often spoken of as *knights*. Properly a knight was a fully armed and mounted soldier, who had been solemnly admitted to the use of arms by his older and tried comrades. The greatest kings and nobles were proud to be dubbed knights by some famous warrior. But every landholder of a fair-sized estate might be compelled by the king to become a knight, so that the word knight often meant simply a smaller landlord.

3. The estates of the nobles and gentry were divided

into *manors*, which were all very much of the same type. Each manor had its *lord*, who controlled all the land and exercised jurisdiction in his *manorial court* over his tenants. If the lord were a great man, he probably held many manors scattered all over England, so that he could seldom visit each one of them, but appointed a *steward* to act as his representative. In any case, there was a *bailiff*, who looked after the details of cultivation and management. There was probably a *hall*, where the lord could reside with his followers. The land was divided into two parts. First there was the *demesne*, or home-farm of the lord, which was cultivated by his bailiff for him, and then there were the little patches of land held by the villagers, many of whom were *villains*, or serfs, who were compelled to live on their farms and work on their lord's demesne for a stated number of days.

The manor.
Life in the
country.

4. There was much less variety than there is nowadays in the cultivation of the soil. The earth was ploughed by heavy ploughs, drawn by several yoke of oxen. In the ploughed lands there was a regular succession of crops of corn, and then the soil lay *fallow*, or empty, for a year to recover its fertility. The farms of the tenants were not, as they would be now, all grouped together, but they were scattered in long narrow strips all over the manor. The corn lands were only fenced during spring and summer, and after harvest the fences were thrown down, and any tenant could pasture his cattle or his sheep upon them. There was also a large extent of *common*, or rough permanent pasture, upon which any member of the manor could turn his beasts to feed. The object of the farmer was to raise enough corn and meat to keep himself and his household during the winter. Very little produce was sent to market, and there was very little

Manorial
agriculture.

124 England in the 12th and 13th Centuries

intercourse between one district and another. Money was seldom used, and even the great nobles did not possess much of it.

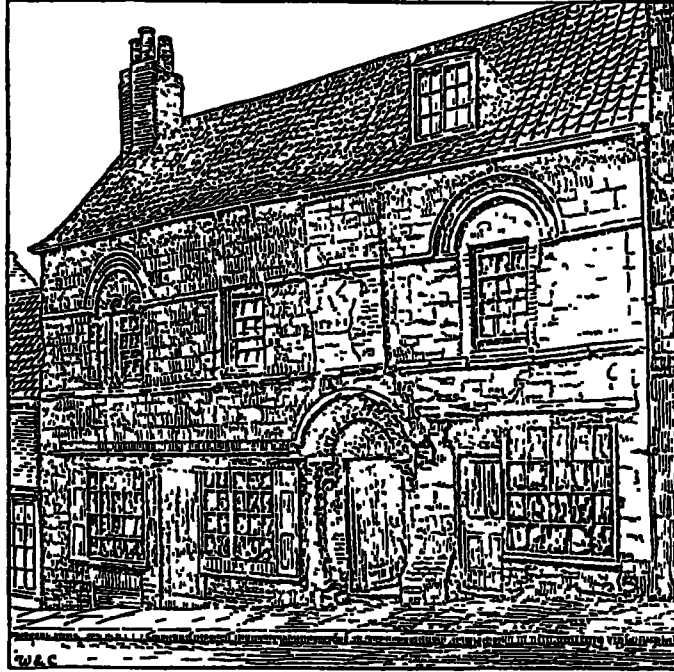
5. The king and the nobles, who held many manors, lived a curiously wandering life, moving with all their attendants from one manor to another. When they had eaten up the produce of one estate, they went on to the next, for it was easier for men to move about than it was for produce to be carried for long distances. One result of this was that even rich men lived very uncomfortable lives. They changed their abode so often that it was never worth while to collect much furniture or make their houses really comfortable. They had plenty to eat and drink, and plenty of rough, warm clothes. But they huddled together to sleep in the same great room in which they lived and ate. There was much dirt and overcrowding, and an almost complete lack of privacy.

Wandering
life of the
king and
nobles.

6. What trade there was centred in the towns, which received an immense impulse after the Norman Conquest. After the Conquest the court made Westminster its chief centre. One result of this was that London, already the most important town, became the recognised capital of the country. It received many liberties by grant or charter from the kings, and finally obtained the right of choosing its own *mayor* or head. The Londoners took an active part in politics, and were very rich and influential. There was no town that approached London in wealth, trade, or number of inhabitants, and the greater country towns were contented to obtain from the king charters which extended to them the liberties already granted to the Londoners. But even the townsmen were not very keen or enterprising traders. Foreign trade was almost altogether in the hands of Italians and Germans, and money-lending was the special business of

The towns.

the Jews, who thrived by it so much that they were the first private people to build stone houses to live in. However, their religion and their usury made the Jews



The Jews' House at Lincoln.

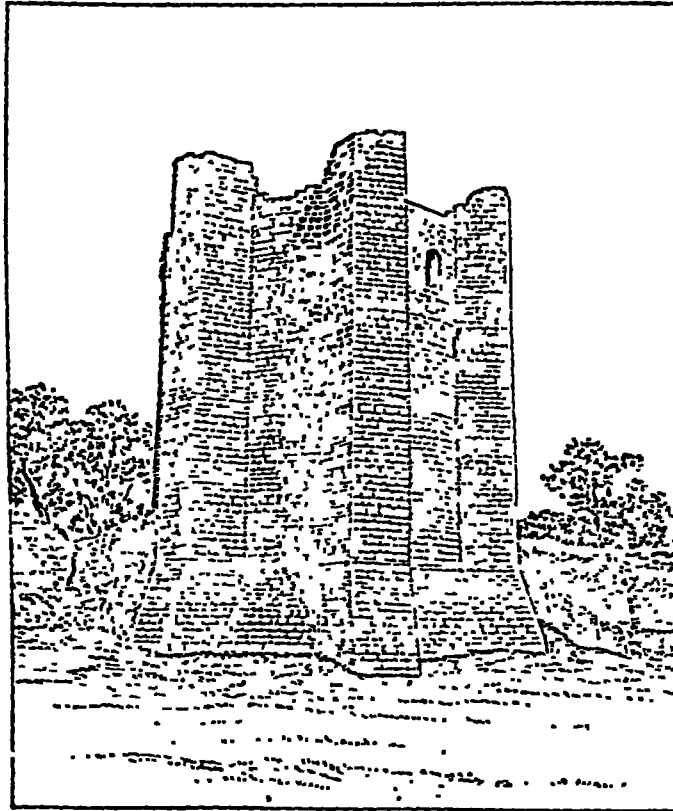
very unpopular, and in 1290 Edward I. drove them out of the country.

7. The finest buildings were the castles, churches, and monasteries. The Norman castle was, as we have seen, a solid square tower of stone, supported by outworks. Later on the tower became round, instead of square. A fine example of a late Norman tower is that of Conisborough, near Doncaster in Yorkshire, where the huge round tower is further strengthened by buttresses. During the thirteenth century castles grew still more elaborate, until we reach the famous castles built by Edward I. in Wales, which are called *concentric*, because they consist of several lines of defence, circling round a common

Castles.

126 England in the 12th and 13th Centuries

centre. Instances of these are to be seen in the cuts of Conway and Carnarvon Castles on pages 113 and 114.

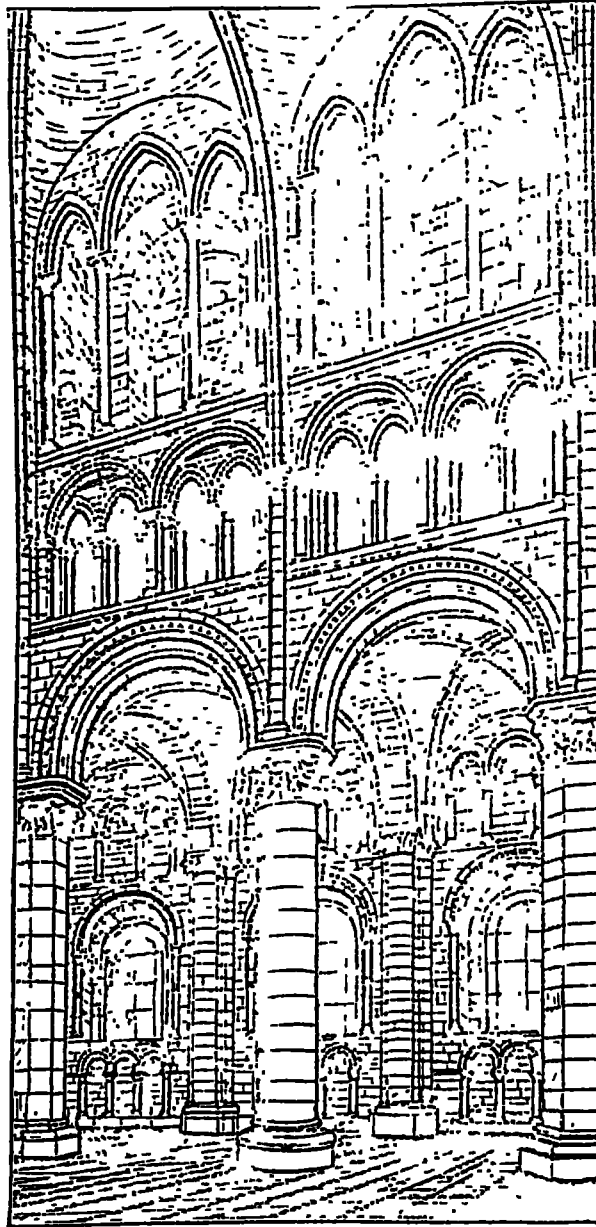


Keep of Conisbro' Castle (End of Twelfth Century).

8. Church-building developed like castle-building, and perhaps the most beautiful churches ever set up in this country arose in the days of Henry III. and Edward I. The old Norman fashion of building began to die out about Henry II.'s time, and in its stead arose the Gothic style, brought in from France. We have seen a good example of this in Henry III.'s rebuilding of Westminster Abbey. But there was no sudden change from the old to the newer style. Gothic grew gradually out of the older Norman; and we can see, especially in buildings of Henry II.'s time, how the one style faded into the other. A good instance of this

Early Gothic
architecture.

transition is to be seen in the choir or eastern part

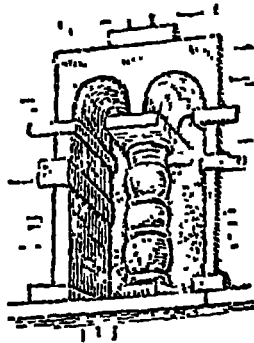


Part of the Choir of Canterbury Cathedral.
(In building from 1175-1181.)

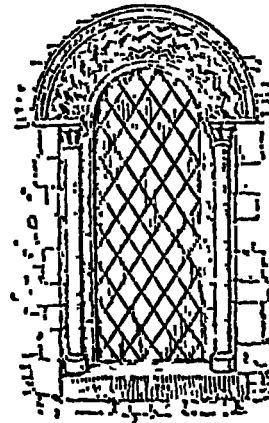
of Canterbury Cathedral, built by a French architect soon after the murder of Thomas Becket. This is

128 England in the 12th and 13th Centuries

nearly Gothic, but we see that the great arches are still round, after the earlier Norman fashion, though

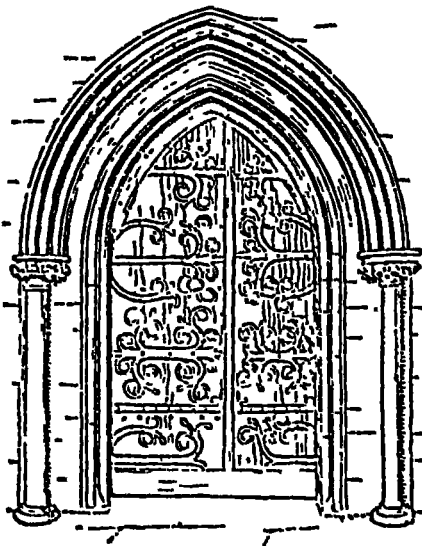


Saxon Window, St. Benet's Church, Cambridge.

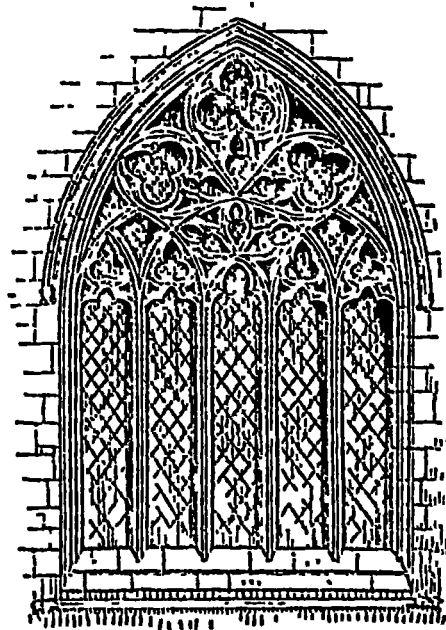


Norman Window, St. John's, Dorizes.

the highest tier of arches is pointed. By Henry III.'s time Gothic had attained its finest proportions. Build-



Early English Doorway, Uffington, Berkshire.



Decorated Window, Leigh Church, Staffordshire.

ings were then erected in the style called *Early English*, with lancet windows, clustered shafts, and

great delicacy of detail. Under Edward I. a richer style gradually came in, which is called *Decorated*. We can see in the pictures here given some of the differences of detail between these two forms of Gothic, and of its relations to the older Anglo-Saxon and Norman styles.

9. Dress changed very slowly, though it became richer and more luxurious as time went on. Gentlemen wore long gowns, falling below the knee, so that, as the pictures show, men and women did not look very different from each other. Rich stuffs, bright colours, fur, and jewels, were worn by the wealthy of both sexes alike. Fur was

Dress and
Armour.



Lay Costumes in the Twelfth Century.

very necessary in winter time, since fuel was scarce, and thick garments were the chief means of keeping out the cold. There was a great difference between the simple garments of the poor and the fine clothes of the nobles and gentry. In war-time soldiers' armour became much more elaborate. Save for kings and leaders, body armour was rare before the invasions of the Danes and Normans. These brought in the *hauberk*,

130 England in the 12th and 13th Centuries

or tunic of *chain-mail*, in which the whole garment consisted of small rings of steel or iron, linked closely together. An early form of this is shown in the cuts figured from the Bayeux Tapestry on pages 49 and 65.



Effigy of William Longespée, Earl of Salisbury.
(Showing Armour worn from 1225-1250.)

During the twelfth century the hauberk was supplemented by other trappings which enabled the bearer better to ward off attack. The helmet, hitherto open, save for a *nasal* protecting the nose, became an elaborate structure, closed by a grating, or *visor*, with holes for eyes and mouth. Under the helmet was worn a skull-cap of steel, covered by a hood of mail, shielding the whole head and neck. Horses as well as men were now protected by armour. Over the coat of mail the knight now wore a surcoat, on which, or on his shield, was painted or embroidered his arms or device. Every knight had his personal or family badge, and a special science called Heraldry grew up, which explained the differences between the arms of the various knightly and baronial families. The cut of a knight on page 87, and that of the Earl of Salisbury

on this page, illustrate some of the later forms of chain armour.

10. The Church was now at its strongest. Reinvigorated by the Norman Conquest, it was kept active and energetic by a series of great leaders and teachers, such as Anselm and Becket. The monks grew more wealthy and powerful than ever, and from time to

time fresh *orders* or forms of monastic life were established. The most important of these were the *Mendicant Orders*, which came to England in the reign of Henry III. The two chief mendicant orders were the Franciscans and the Dominicans, founded by Francis, an Italian, and Dominic, a Spaniard. While the older orders of monks held great landed estates, Francis and Dominic ordered their followers to possess nothing at all, but to gain their living by begging for their bread. This was why they were called the mendicant or begging orders. They were also styled the *Friars* or *brethren*, a word taken from the French *frère*. They were therefore often described as the Mendicant Friars.

The Mendi-
cant Friars.

11. Another difference between the Friars and the older orders was that while the Benedictines and the other earlier monks aimed at withdrawing from the world as much as they could, the Friars lived in the world and tried to make it better. They preached, visited the sick, cared for the poor, and made themselves loved and feared by every class of society. As time went on they fell away from their early activity; but even in their decline they remained very powerful, and down to the Reformation the Friars continued to be the chief teachers of religion to the poor.

Their work
among the
poor.

12. As war became less common, and Europe grew richer and more prosperous, learning and science revived. All over Europe throngs of students flocked to be taught by some well-known teacher; and in the latter part of the twelfth century began the *Universities*, which have ever since had such an important influence on the spread and advance of knowledge. The universities were corporations or guilds of teachers or learners, which received from kings and popes special privileges that made them very powerful. The earliest uni-

Learning
and the
Universities.

132 England in the 12th and 13th Centuries

versities were abroad, and the most celebrated one in northern Europe was at Paris. However, in Henry II.'s time, an English university grew up at Oxford, which by the days of Henry III. had become very famous. Before this a second English university arose at Cambridge, though this did not acquire the reputation of Oxford until the beginning of the Tudor period. The chief studies of the universities were Philosophy, Theology, Law, and Medicine. The lectures were all given in Latin, which was still the everyday language of scholars. Students wandered freely all over Europe from one university to another, and thus became acquainted with other lands than their own. They were of all ranks of life, and many scholars were very poor. But the universities enabled the poorest men to rise by their learning into the highest stations of life. A poor scholar might become an archbishop, cardinal, or pope. The Church was in those days the only learned profession, and all scholars had the privileges of the clergy.

13. Taken altogether, life in those days was very picturesque and full of strange contrasts between what was bad and what was good. But things were moving steadily forward. Life became much less rough and savage than it had been. The fierce soldier was still very powerful, and there was still much bloodshed, misery, and famine. But however much we may be struck by the differences between our times and those of Edward I.'s, we must never forget how, after all, human nature was very much the same then as it is now. And in some ways, perhaps, the men of Edward's day could do things better than we can. In particular, they could build those splendid buildings, which alone would show that our land had far outgrown its earlier barbarism, and had acquired a fine perception of what was beautiful and true.

CHAPTER XIV

Edward II. of Carnarvon, 1307-1327

(Married Isabella of France)

Principal Persons :

Robert Bruce, King of Scots; Piers Gaveston; the two Hugh Despensers; Roger Mortimer.

Principal Dates :

- 1307. Accession of Edward II.
- 1312. Murder of Gaveston.
- 1314. Battle of Bannockburn.
- 1327. Deposition of Edward II.

1. Edward II., the son and successor of Edward I., was a strange contrast to his father. Though tall, strong, and good-looking, he was a coward and an idler. Even bad kings like John had taken seriously the work of ruling the kingdom, but Edward II. thought of nothing but amusing himself. He had long been influenced for evil by *Piers Gaveston*, a gentleman from that part of Aquitaine called *Gascony*. Edward I. had driven the young Gascon out of the country in the hope that in his absence the heir to the throne might learn better ways. But all his father's care was thrown away on such a worthless fellow as Edward. As soon as he had become king, he brought Gaveston back to England. He neglected his solemn promise to his father to persevere in the war against the Scots, and hurried back to London. Before long the barons grew indignant against the weak king and

his insolent and greedy favourite. They twice expelled Gaveston from the country, but on each occasion he soon came back again. At last the barons took him prisoner and put him to death. Edward was too feeble even to revenge Gaveston's murder, and soon had to make terms with his enemies. But



Edward II.

with such a king as Edward, things were sure to go on badly whoever was in power. All through the reign there was constant quarrelling between the king and the barons. The result was that the country was very badly governed and every one was discontented.

2. Edward II.'s weakness did good to nobody but Robert Bruce and the Scots. When Edward I. died, Bruce's position was still doubtful; but when Edward II. gave up fighting the war in person, the chances of the new Scottish king grew brighter. Bit by bit Bruce chased away the English garrisons. After about six years he had conquered nearly all Scotland. Only a few castles still held out for Edward. The chief of these was *Stirling*, a strong fortress situated on the river Forth, and the

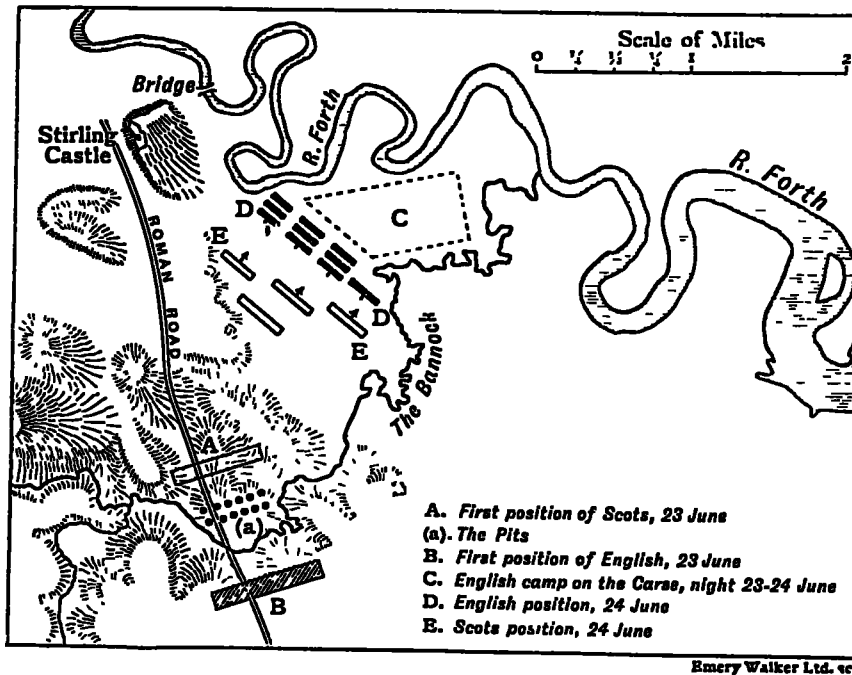
Robert
Bruce wins
over all
Scotland.

place through which the best road from the Lowlands to the Highlands passed. At last Bruce besieged Stirling also, and soon the garrison was so hard pressed, that they agreed to surrender if not relieved by St. John's Day, 21th June 1314.

3. If Stirling fell, the English rule in Scotland was at an end. Even Edward II. felt that he must make an effort to avoid so deep a disgrace. He was

at this moment on fair terms with his barons, and had professed to forgive them for the murder of Gaveston. King and barons accordingly joined to raise an army to prevent Bruce getting hold of Stirling. A great host gathered together. But big as it was, it had little discipline and no real general. It was so slow that it only came near Stirling on the day before that appointed for its

The Battle of Bannockburn.



Battle of Bannockburn.

surrender. Bruce resolved to fight a battle to prevent the siege being raised. He took up a strong position on the north bank of the *Bannockburn*, a few miles south of Stirling, and awaited the English advance. His precautions made the English afraid to attack him in front, and they crossed the Bannock lower down, hoping to outflank him and open up communication with Stirling. They lost heavily in two skirmishes on that day, and were forced to camp for the night in the marshy flats between the Forth and the Bannock.

Bruce saw that the enemy had delivered themselves into his hands and, boldly deserting his defensive lines, he ordered his soldiers to advance against them. As at Falkirk, the Scots still fought on foot and the English on horseback. The Scots pikemen went to the fight in dense squares, each man standing shoulder to shoulder with his long pike ready to ward off the rush of the English mail-clad warriors on their heavy horses. As the English horse thundered towards the foe, the Scottish archers threw them into confusion by well-directed flights of arrows. Then the pikemen advanced and soon won a complete victory. The English were driven from the field, and Edward himself was among the first to flee. Many were drowned in the Forth or Bannock, and the whole host at once melted away.

4. The battle of Bannockburn was quite decisive.

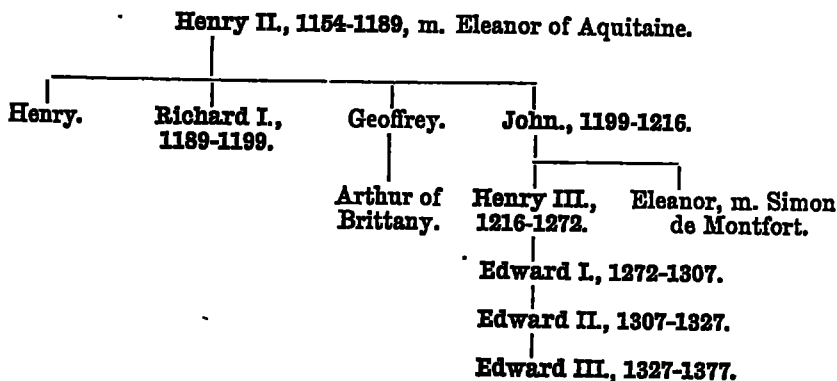
Scotland
secures its
independ-
ence. There was still a great deal of fighting, but the Scots continued to win. At last, in 1328, Edward III. signed the *Peace of Northampton*, by which he recognised Bruce as King of Scots, and released Scotland from all feudal dependence on England.

5. Edward reigned twelve years after Bannockburn, but all that time things grew worse and worse. He had now new favourites, the two *Hugh Despensers*, father and son. These were, at least, English noblemen, and not foreign upstarts like Gaveston. But they were soon as bitterly hated as ever Gaveston had been. Their greediness and pride set every one against them. But Edward upheld them until his fondness proved his ruin.

6. *Isabella of France*, Edward's wife, was a bad woman, but she had plenty of real grievances against her husband and the Despensers. She cleverly pretended to be contented, and got from Edward permission to go to France to see her brother, the French king. Their little son,

also named Edward, went with her. At Paris she made friends with *Roger Mortimer*, a brutal baron from the March of Wales, whom the Despensers had driven into banishment. They agreed to cross over to England and make war against the king. Before long, Isabella, her son, and Mortimer landed in England with a little army. Men were so weary of the king and his favourites that they gladly welcomed her. Edward fled to his native Wales, but was soon taken prisoner and deposed. The young Edward was made Edward III., but Isabella and Mortimer really governed in his name. Next year Edward II. was cruelly murdered at *Berkeley Castle* in Gloucestershire. We can still see in the neighbouring cathedral of Gloucester the beautiful tomb set up over the remains of the most worthless of all the English kings. Nothing tells us more clearly what splendid works of art the old Gothic sculptors could make. But there is a strange contrast between all the splendour that enshrines the body of the wretched Edward II. at Gloucester and the plain stone slab set up over the remains of his heroic father at Westminster.

GENEALOGY OF THE ENGLISH KINGS FROM HENRY II. TO
EDWARD III.



CHAPTER XV

Edward III., 1327-1377

(Married Philippa of Hainault)

Principal Persons :

Edward Balliol and David Bruce, rival Kings of Scots ; Philip VI. and John, Kings of France ; Edward the Black Prince ; Geoffrey Chaucer, the poet ; John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster.

Principal Dates :

- 1327. Accession of Edward III.
- 1328. Peace of Northampton.
- 1330. Isabella and Mortimer driven from power.
- 1337. Beginning of the Hundred Years' War.
- 1340. Battle of Sluys.
- 1346. Battles of Crecy and Neville's Cross.
- 1349. The Black Death.
- 1356. Battle of Poitiers.
- 1360. Treaty of Bretigny.
- 1376. The Good Parliament.
- 1377. Death of Edward III.

1. Edward III. was only fifteen when he was made king, and for three years Isabella and Mortimer ruled in his name. The chief power was with Mortimer, who was made *Earl of March* (that is, of the March of Wales), and given great estates. His arrogance and cruelty made him hated by the barons, and the peace of Northampton, made in 1328, which acknowledged Bruce as King of Scots was so much disliked that men called it 'the disgraceful peace.' In 1330 the king threw off Mortimer's yoke and put him to death. With the fall of Mortimer Edward III.'s real reign began.

2. Edward was a tall, strong, brave, and vigorous king. He was fond of show and display, and kept up a magnificent court. He was a good soldier, and eager to win fame as a general. His first wish was to restore the reputation which his country had lost during the evil days of his father. With that object he

Edward
renews the
war with
Scotland.



Edward III.



Queen Philippa,
Wife of Edward III.

backed up *Edward Balliol*, son of John Balliol, who, after Robert Bruce's death, disputed the Scottish throne with *David*, Robert's son. Edward Balliol succeeded for a short time, but before long David Bruce drove him out and secured his father's inherit-

ance. The French, who had already helped King Robert, did a great deal towards bringing back his son.

3. War with France soon followed war with Scotland. This war lasted so long that it is generally

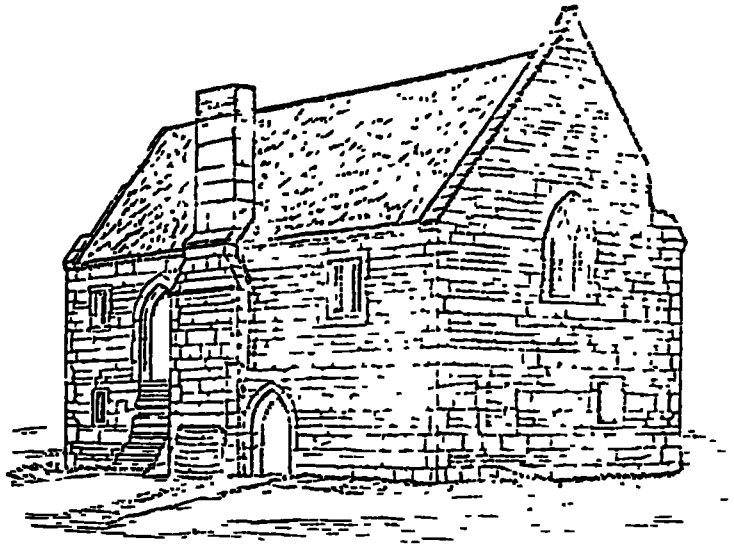
Causes of the Hundred Years' War. called the *Hundred Years' War*. It was not, however, true that fighting went on

all that time without a break, but for more than a hundred years England and France were nearly always unfriendly, and generally actually at war with each other. The beginning of the enmity between the two countries was owing to the help which Philip VI., who was then King of France, had given to David Bruce. But there were many other causes of quarrel. Edward was still ruler of a portion of that Aquitanian inheritance which Queen Eleanor had brought as her wedding portion to Henry II. This country was called *Guienne* and *Gascony*, and its chief town was Bordeaux. The French kings had long been striving to drive out the English dukes from Gascony, and make it, as they had made Normandy, part of their own dominions. In the same way the French kings were anxious to conquer *Flanders*, the western part of the country now called Belgium. Flanders in those days was the chief manufacturing country of northern Europe, and its largest towns, Ghent and Bruges, were the best customers that England had for its produce. England in those days was not, as it is now, a great manufacturing country. Most of its people were farmers, and the chief article exported was wool, which was sent to Flanders to be woven into cloth by the Flemish manufacturers. The great towns of Flanders were very much opposed to the King of France, and the English helped them willingly in their resistance to his attacks upon their liberties. All these reasons caused Englishmen and Frenchmen to dislike each

other very much, and now Edward brought this hostility to a head by declaring that he was himself the rightful King of France.

4. Philip VI. of Valois had been King of France since 1328. The three kings before him had been brothers of Isabella, Edward III.'s mother, but all had died without leaving a son. The French nobles were anxious always to be ruled by a man. They declared that the law that no woman should rule prevailed in France;¹

Edward's
claim to the
French
throne.



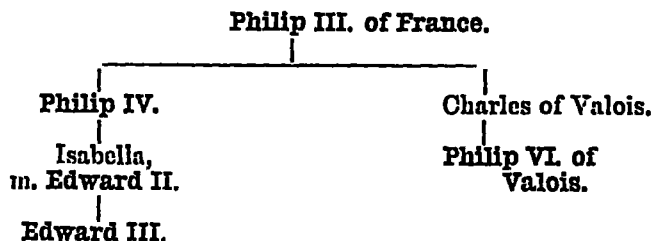
A small House or Cottage at Meare, Somerset (built about 1350).

and therefore said that the throne should go to Philip, the cousin of the last kings and of Isabella. Accordingly Philip became King of France, Isabella and Edward raising but a faint protest. Ten years later, however, when France and England were already drifting into war, Edward formally demanded the throne. He admitted that his mother could not reign in France, but said that she was able to hand on her claim to him. Accordingly he assumed

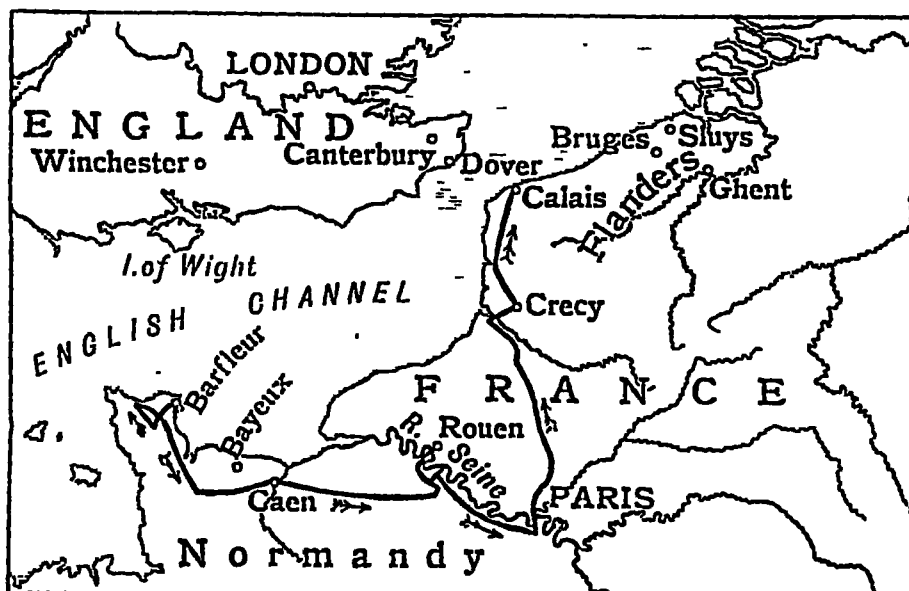
¹ This law was afterwards called the Salic Law.

the title of King of France, and from that moment to the days of George III. every English king called himself also King of France, and quartered on his shield the lilies of France with the lions of England. It was this pretension that made the war last more than a hundred years. But Edward's claim was not a just one, and the French rightly resisted it, as it would have meant their being ruled by a foreigner.

TABLE SHOWING THE CLAIMS OF EDWARD III. AND PHILIP VI. TO THE FRENCH THRONE.



5. Parliament was glad that Edward was going to



The Campaign of Edward III. in 1316.

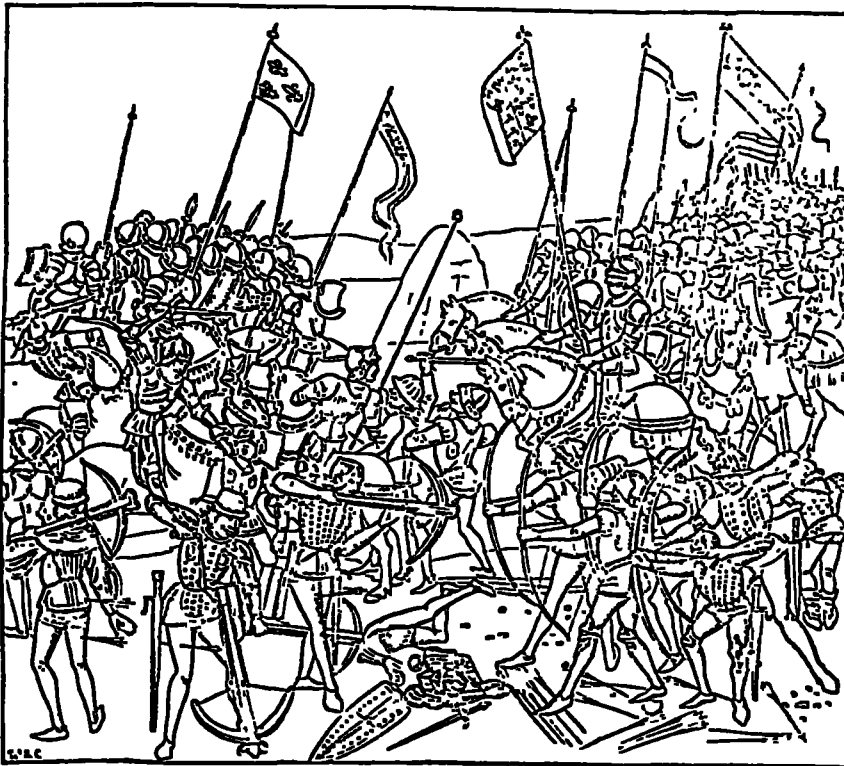
Walker & Cockerell sc.

fight the French, and willingly granted him liberal supplies, with which he fitted out gallant armies.

Yet during the first years of the war Edward won but few successes. But in 1340 he gained a great sea-fight at *Sluys* off the Flemish coast, one of the earliest and most decisive of English naval victories. This enabled England to send what armies she would over the Channel.

The Battle
of Sluys.

6. In 1346 Edward invaded Normandy, taking with



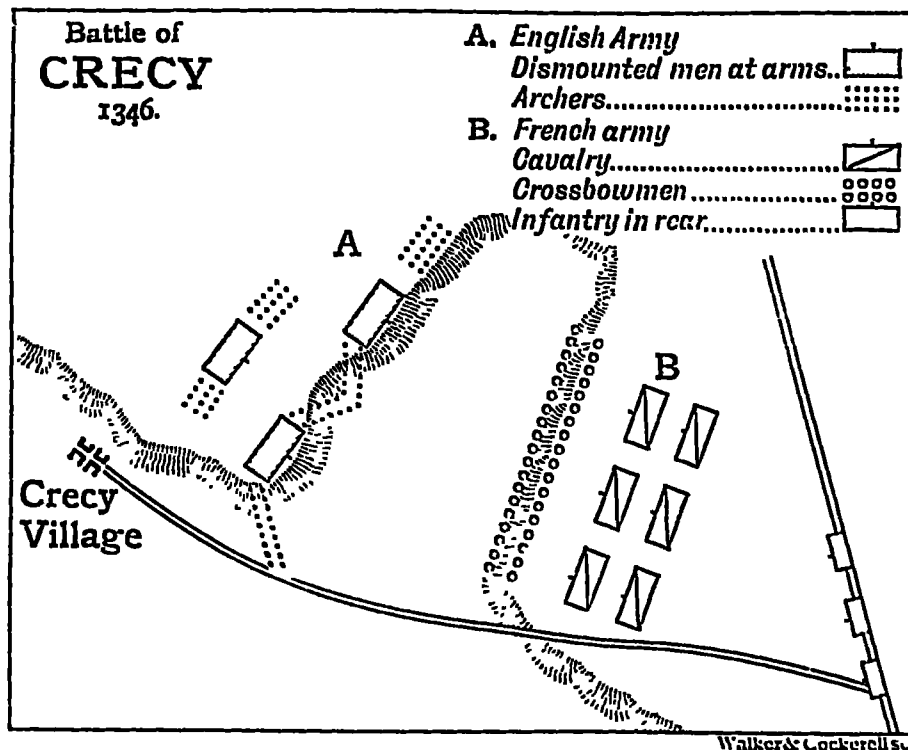
The Battle of Crecy.

(Showing English Archers and French Knights.)

him his young son *Edward, Prince of Wales*, called, from the colour of his armour, the *Black Prince*. After marching from the Norman coast almost to the gates of Paris, the English were forced by superior numbers to retreat northwards. Before long the French came up to them and compelled them to fight a battle at the

The Battle
of Crecy.

little village of *Crecy*. The French host was much bigger than the English army, but the English were better trained and more experienced soldiers. They had learned from the disaster at Bannockburn that well-disciplined infantry, supported by archers, could resist the fierce shock of feudal cavalry. Accordingly the English dismounted, took a strong position on the slope of a hill, and prepared to meet the French on foot. After vain attempts to break up the close



English array by showers of bolts from their crossbows, the chivalry of France charged on horseback up to the English lines. But, like the English at Bannockburn, they were thrown into confusion by well-directed flights of arrows, and failed to break through. Before long the little English army gained the most complete of victories. The Black Prince, young as he was, had a great share in winning this battle.

7. Crecy was not the only success of the year. David Bruce, who invaded England in the hope of helping the French, was beaten at *Neville's Cross*, near Durham, and taken prisoner. Moreover, next year Edward took the French seaport of *Calais*, which remained English for more than two hundred years. For all this period it served as the open gate through which England might pour its armies into northern France.

Neville's
Cross and
Calais.

8. A few years after this, Edward the Black Prince was made Duke of Aquitaine, and sent to Bordeaux, where he ruled over as brilliant and gallant a court as that of his father at London. The

The Black
Prince in
Aquitaine,
and the
Battle of
Poitiers.

Gascons were as devoted to him as were the English, for in those days the men of southern France hated the French king and the north Frenchmen among whom he lived, and preferred to be ruled by their English dukes, who were sprung from their own ancient line of rulers. Year after year, the Black Prince led the best of the knights of England and Gascony in forays into the French king's lands. In 1356, on his return from one of these expeditions, he was attacked near

Poitiers by a vastly larger army led by King John of France, the son and successor of Philip vi. By this time the French had learned the lesson of Crecy, and leaving their horses in the rear, went to battle on foot after the English fashion. But they were new to this way of fighting, and were out-generalled by



Edward, the
Black Prince.

the English. After a desperate struggle, victory fell to the English and Gascon host, and King John himself was taken prisoner.

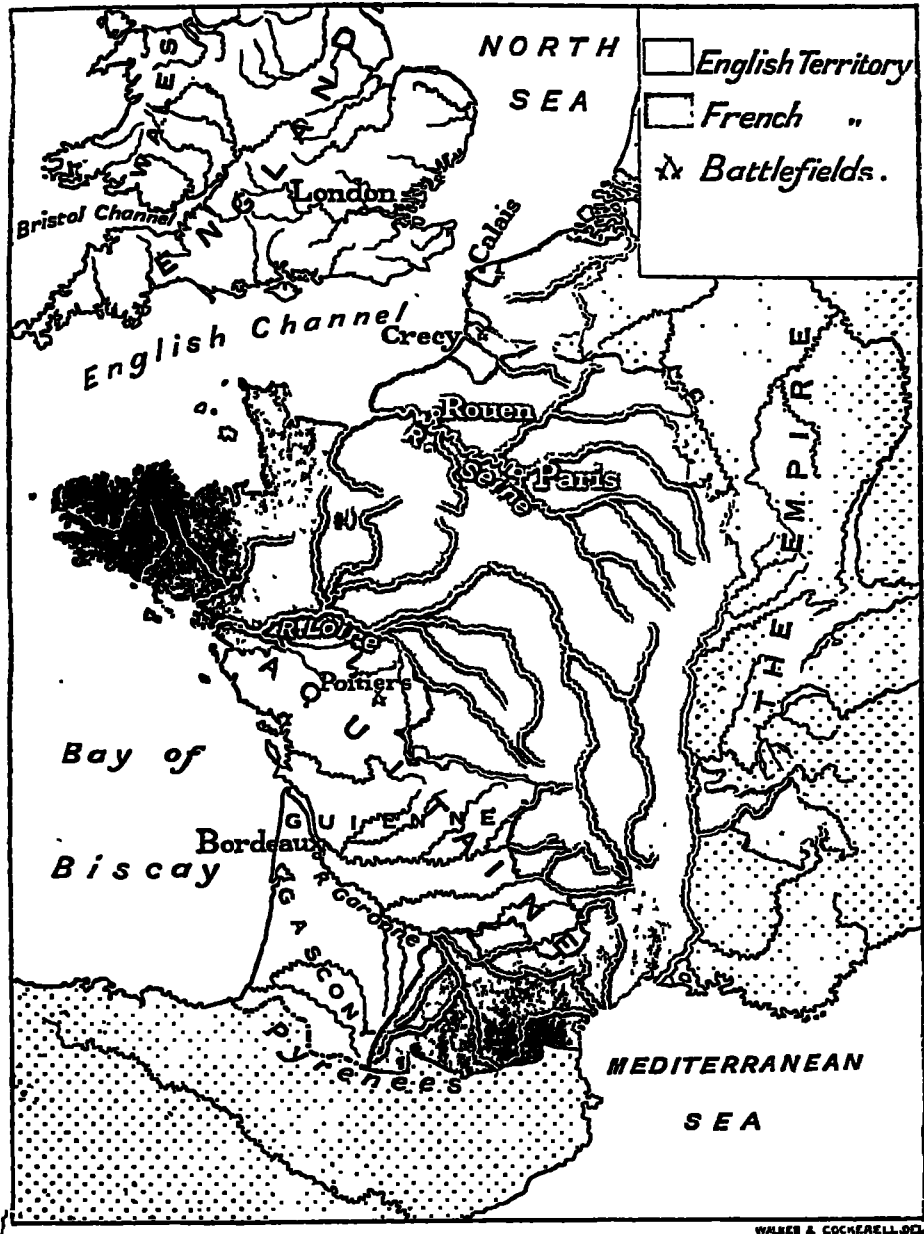
9. France now fell into such a terrible condition that in 1360 John was glad to make peace in the *Treaty of Calais*. By this Edward gave up his claim to the French crown on condition of his receiving the part of France between the Loire and the Pyrenees, the complete inheritance of Eleanor of Aquitaine. But this peace did not last very long. The newly won provinces revolted from their English rulers, and everything went to the bad when ill-health compelled the Black Prince to return from Bordeaux to London. Before Edward III.'s death the English had lost nearly all they had won from the French, save a few coast towns like Calais and Bordeaux, which were easy to hold because the English still commanded the sea. But even in this period of triumph, the French avoided fighting pitched battles with the terrible English. Crecy and Poitiers had made the English archer and man-at-arms the most famous soldiers in Christendom.

10. One result of the long war with France was that the king and nobles, in their dislike of the French, began using English as their daily speech, for the first time since the Norman Conquest. English thus became once more a tongue of courts and society, and many more books were now written in it. The most famous English writer of this period was the great poet, *Geoffrey Chaucer*, a servant of Edward III., whose *Canterbury Tales* give us so vivid and true an account of the life of those days. But the cheerful and merry England Chaucer describes was but one side of the picture. As a whole, Edward's reign was by no means one of unmixed prosperity.

11. In 1349 a plague called the *Black Death* spread

The Treaty of Calais and the collapse of the English power in France.

Chaucer and the revival of the English tongue.

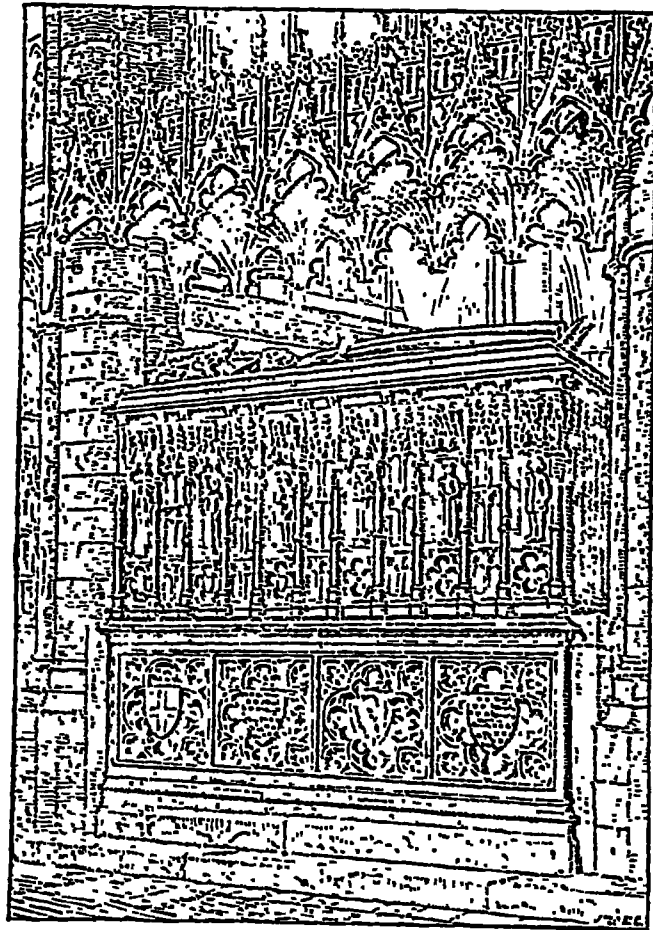


WALKER & COCKERELL, D.D.

THE ENGLISH DOMINIONS IN FRANCE AFTER THE
TREATY OF CALAIS, 1360.

misery all over Europe. In England it is thought that one man in three died of it, and it was long before its ravages were forgotten. The king was not so wise in governing his kingdom as he was brave in fighting the French. He was greedy and unscrupulous, often

The Black
Death, and
the Order of
the Garter.



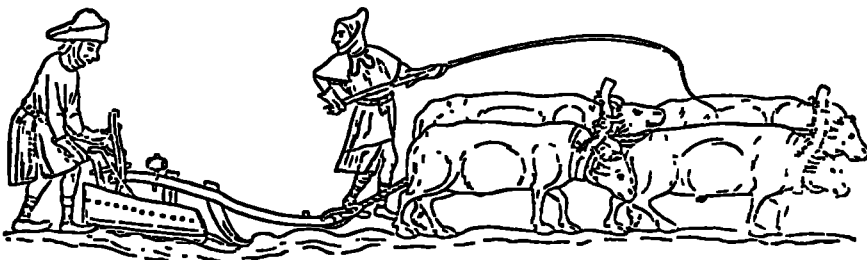
Tomb of Edward III. in Westminster Abbey.

deceiving his Parliaments in order to get money from them. He was gracious and kindly to knights and nobles, treating even his enemies with kindness and forbearance, as, for example, the captive kings of France and Scotland. He increased the splendour of his court by founding an order of knighthood called

the *Order of the Garter*. This took its name from the garter worn by the knights who were members of it, and the best warriors and nobles were proud to belong to so famous a brotherhood. But Edward cared little for the common people, and often used them cruelly.

12. As Edward grew old, he became sickly and weak, and fell into the hands of unscrupulous ministers. There was much discontent in consequence, and Parliament began to complain bitterly of the king's doings. At last, in 1376, a Parliament met which did so much for the people that men called it the *Good Parliament*. It brought the king's evil ministers to trial by a new method called *Impeachment*, by which the House of Commons accused them of treason or other grave crimes before the House of Lords. It was the last act of the life of Edward the Black Prince to back up the Good Parliament. But the king's third son, *John of Gaunt* (so called because he was born at Gaunt or Ghent in Flanders), supported the courtiers against his elder brother. He was his father's favourite, and by his marriage with the heiress of the Earls of Lancaster had acquired great estates which Edward III. had erected into the Duchy of Lancaster for him. In the midst of the session, the Black Prince, who had never been in good health since he came back from France, died. After this the Commons were soon sent home, and the bad ministers came back. Before long Edward III. died.

The Good
Parliament,
and the
death of
Edward III.



Ploughing (about the middle of the Fourteenth Century). (See p. 123.)

CHAPTER XVI

Richard II. of Bordeaux, 1377-1399

(Married (1) Anne of Bohemia ; (2) Isabella of France)

Principal Persons :

Wat Tyler ; John Wycliffe ; John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster ;
Thomas, Duke of Gloucester ; Henry, Duke of Hereford ; Charles
VI. of France.

Principal Dates :

- 1377. Accession of Richard II.
- 1381. The Peasants' Revolt.
- 1384. Death of John Wycliffe.
- 1397. Richard II.'s triumph over his enemies.
- 1399. Richard II.'s deposition.

1. Edward III.'s successor was *Richard of Bordeaux*, the son of the Black Prince, who was but a child at his grandfather's death. This made it necessary for the king's council to govern, and John, Duke of Lancaster, was still, as in the days of Edward III., the chief man in the council. But the new reign began badly. Heavy taxes were imposed, but the people got nothing in return for them. The French revenged themselves for past defeats by ravaging the English coasts, and England was ruled weakly and filled with disorder. Four years after Richard's accession discontent came to a head in the Peasants' Revolt of 1381.

2. The causes of this rising were very numerous. Since the feudal system had been brought in, a great deal of the land of England had been cultivated by a class of men called *villeins*, that is, countrymen.

These villeins were in some ways very well off. Each of them had his cottage and little patch of ground, from which he could not be turned off so long as he performed his services to his lord. Though they had no luxuries, the villeins seem in ordinary times to have had plenty of meat, bread, and ale, and enough coarse woollen clothing to keep out the cold. But they were not free. They were not exactly like the slaves that were common in early England.

The causes
of the
Peasants'
Revolt,
and the
grievances
of the
villeins.

In the centuries succeeding the Norman Conquest actual slavery had died out. But one result of feudalism had been that men whose ancestors had once been free, had to fall into this condition of villeinage. The villeins were serfs, bound to the soil, who could not move from the estate of their lord on which they lived; moreover, instead of paying a money-rent for their little holding, they were forced to work so many days a week on their lords' farms. As time went



Richard II.

(From a Lithograph published by the Arundel Society, after the Portrait in a Diptych belonging to the Earl of Pembroke.)

on the villeins grew discontented. They complained that their lords were too harsh in exacting labour from them, and they were eager to obtain full freedom. Yet the number of villeins was steadily decreasing, since many ran away from their lords and

many were set free altogether, through the Church teaching that it was a pious thing for lords to give villeins their liberty. Thus by this time there were, besides the villeins, many free labourers, who could live where they liked, and who, like labourers nowadays, worked for a weekly wage. But the free labourers were quite as discontented as the villeins. Unlike the villeins, they had not their small holding of land to fall back upon, and if there was no work for them, they had to beg or starve. Moreover, they complained that wages were too low, and that they were not able to buy enough food or clothing.

3. Besides the unrest among villeins and labourers, every one was disgusted with the bad government and the heavy taxes. At last in 1381 the Kentishmen rose in revolt against a new tax called a *poll-tax*, that is, a tax which everybody had to pay. Headed by one *Wat Tyler*, they took up arms and marched to London. At the same time the villeins of the Eastern Counties also broke out into rebellion, and demanded that villeinage should be abolished. There were riots all over England, but the Kentish resistance to the poll-tax, and the Eastern Counties rising against villeinage, were by far the most formidable. Like the Kentishmen, the Eastern rebels marched on London. Soon the capital was in their hands. They burnt John of Gaunt's palace, and murdered some of the king's ministers.

4. Richard II. was only sixteen years old, but he courageously went from the safe walls of the Tower and rode among the rebels, promising to help them in their distress. Wat Tyler threatened the king, and the Mayor of London slew him on the spot. The rebels raised a loud cry for vengeance, but Richard declared that he himself would be their leader now that their chieftain was slain. He promised to pardon their rebellion and

Wat Tyler
and the
Peasants'
Revolt of
1381.

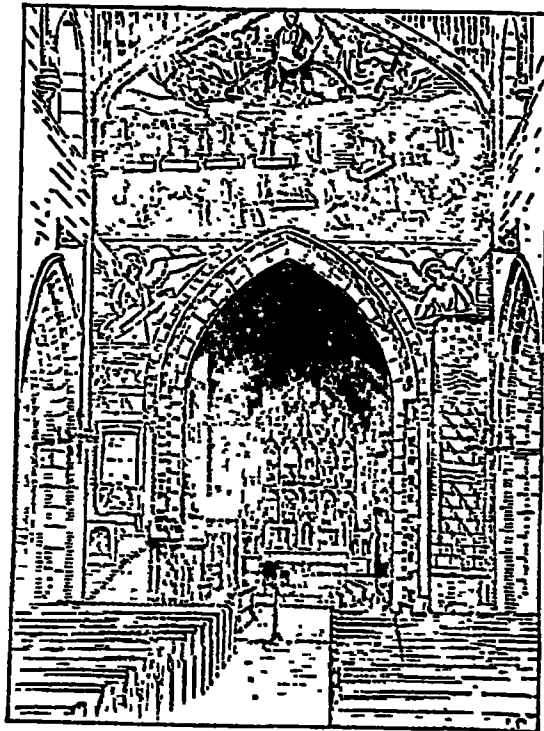
Richard II.
puts down
the revolt.

release them from villeinage. Pleased with his bravery, many of the peasants went home. But it was soon found that the king had no power to carry out his promises, and the gentry, plucking up courage, set to work to put down the revolt systematically. The cruelties, worked by the peasants in their brief moment of triumph, were now repeated against them by their victorious masters. They were forced once more into villeinage, and the only immediate result of the rebellion was that it frightened the Government into better ways, and broke down the power of John of Gaunt. But unsuccessful as the revolt was, it marked the beginning of the end of villeinage. The lords of villeins gradually found out that it was hardly worth the trouble for them to exact forced labour from their serfs, and that the work was done better by free men paid a reasonable wage. Within a hundred years of the Peasants' Revolt, villeinage almost disappeared.

5. There were other discontented men in England besides the peasants. For many hundred years everybody had believed whatever the Church chose to preach. But the Church was neither so pure nor so energetic as it had been a hundred years before. Its great wealth was a snare to its clergy. Many of the bishops spent all their time on politics, and the parish priests were often ignorant and corrupt. Towards the end of Edward III.'s reign, strange doctrines were heard in the University of Oxford with regard to the power of the Church. A sturdy Yorkshireman, named *John Wycliffe*, whose lectures at Oxford had long brought him a great reputation, now taught that only those priests and bishops were to be believed who lived good lives. He declared that the Pope had no authority in England. He urged that the Church should be deprived of its property, so that, being made poor as Christ was, it might be better able to do its

John
Wycliffe
preaches a
revolution in
the Church.

work in humbleness and self-devotion. At last he began to deny some of the great doctrines of the Church. His teaching was the more to be dreaded since he was not content with expounding his ideas to students in Oxford lecture-rooms. He sent out followers of his, called Wycliffe's *poor priests*, who wandered about the country, proclaiming the new



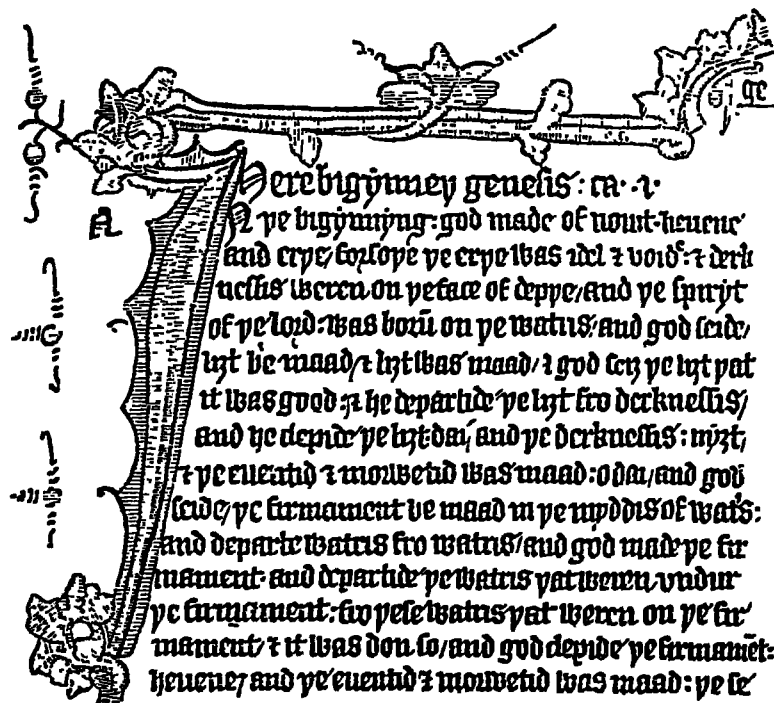
Lutterworth Church.

(View of the Interior, showing the old Painting of 'The Doom'.)

gospel. Moreover, he wrote short tracts in English that every one could understand. He translated the Bible into English, and taught men to seek in the Bible only for the true doctrine of Christ. His disciples, called *Lollards* or *Babblers*, by the friends of old ways, soon became numerous. But as time went on, Wycliffe's views became so extreme that many ceased to follow him. He was condemned by the Church, and was no longer allowed to lecture at Oxford. But he

was permitted to go home to his country parish of Lutterworth in Leicestershire, where he died in 1384. For the rest of the reign, his followers remained very active.

6. The good hopes suggested by Richard II.'s conduct during the rebellion were belied by his later life. As he grew up, he showed that he was proud, despotic,



Portion of Page of the Manuscript of Wycliffe's Bible.
(Three-fourths Scale of Original.)

and careless of his people. But he was no foolish do-nothing like Edward II. He was often lazy and indifferent, but he had from time to time outbursts of energy, during which he was well able to frame a policy of his own. He made friends with the French king Charles VI., and married his daughter. After that he only thought of making himself an absolute monarch like his father-in-law in France, and did not even try to get on with

Richard II.
becomes a
tyrant.

his nobles and Parliaments. Accordingly, there arose once more a party of opposition among the nobles, who for some years managed, as under Edward II., to deprive the king of all his authority. In 1397, however, Richard utterly triumphed over his enemies, and put several of their leaders to death, one of them being his own uncle, *Thomas, Duke of Gloucester*. Others he drove into banishment. He now had the nation at his mercy, and thought he could rule as sternly as a French king.

7. Of Richard's old enemies, two only remained in England. The chief of these was *Henry of Lancaster*, Duke of Hereford, the eldest son of John of Gaunt. He had, however, deserted the party of the nobles, and had in consequence been pardoned by the king. Richard, however, still distrusted him, and before long banished him from England on account of his wishing to fight a duel. This seemed a very harsh step, since in those days the ordinary way of nobles settling their quarrels was by fighting the matter out. But Richard showed still greater severity a little later. John of Gaunt died, and Henry of Hereford, as his heir, should have been allowed to take possession of his duchy of Lancaster. But instead of allowing this, Richard took the Lancaster estates into his own hands. Henry was very indignant, and joined with the other banished enemies of Richard in an attempt to win back his rights.

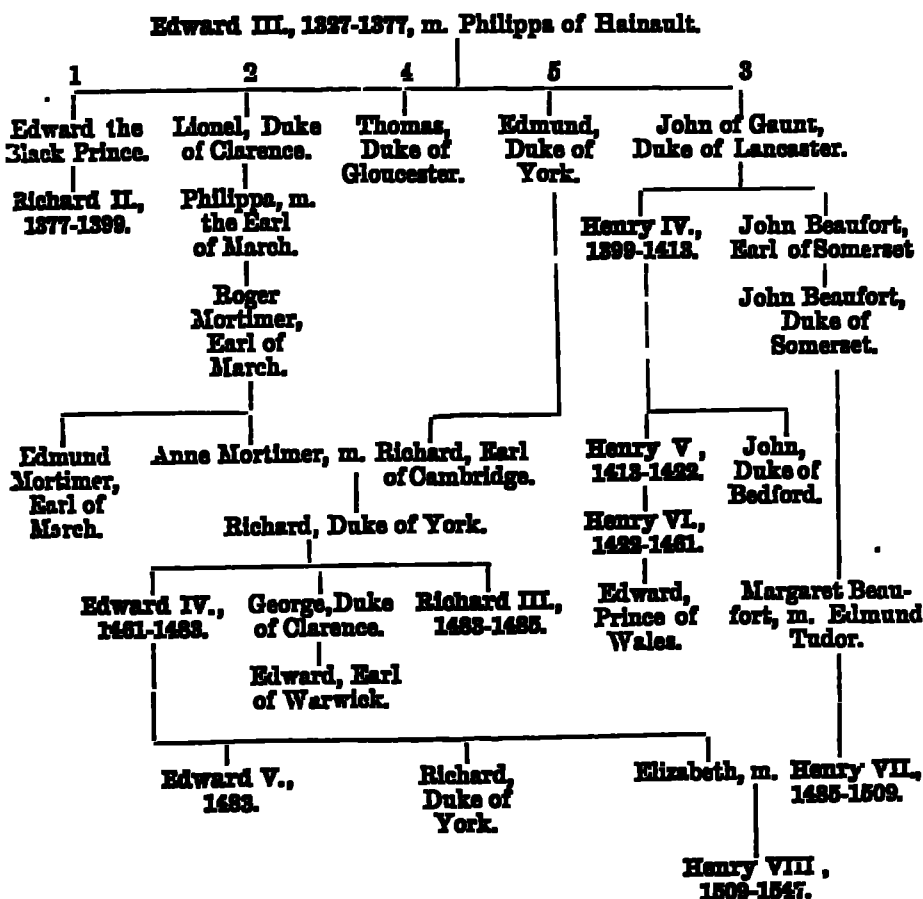
8. In 1399 Henry landed at *Ravenspur*, in the Humber, declaring that he asked for nothing but his father's lands and titles. Before long he was at the head of a gallant army. At this moment Richard was away in Ireland, but he hurried back as soon as the news came that his cousin was returned. He was, however, too late. All England had thrown off the yoke of the despotic

The banish-
ment of
Henry of
Lancaster.

The de-
position of
Richard II.

Richard, just as all England had, seventy years before, refused to be ruled by the lazy Edward II. Richard was forced to surrender to Henry, who was no longer content with the duchy of Lancaster. but also claimed the throne. A Parliament was assembled, which deposed Richard and recognised Henry of Lancaster as Henry IV. Richard, like Edward II., did not long survive his dethronement. Next year he was murdered in his prison of *Pontefract Castle* in Yorkshire.

GENEALOGY OF THE DESCENDANTS OF EDWARD III., TO SHOW THE
CLAIMS OF YORK AND LANCASTER TO THE THRONE.



BOOK IV
THE HOUSES OF YORK AND LANCASTER,
1399-1485

CHAPTER XVII

Henry IV., 1399-1413
(Married (1) Mary Bohun; (2) Joan of Navarre)

Principal Persons :

Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March; Henry Percy, Earl of Northumberland, and his son, Henry Percy, called Hotspur; Owen Glendower; Henry, Prince of Wales.

Principal Dates :

- 1399. Accession of Henry IV.
- 1401. Statute for the Burning of Heretics.
- 1403. Battle of Shrewsbury.
- 1413. Death of Henry IV.

1. Henry IV. was not the nearest heir. His father, John of Gaunt, was Edward III.'s third son, and, though Richard II. had no children, there was still alive a great-grandson of *Lionel, Duke of Clarence*, Henry IV.'s claim to the throne. the second son of Edward III. This was *Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March*, who not only inherited through his grandmother, Clarence's daughter, the best claim by birth to the throne, but also the estates in the west country, which, since the days of his ancestor, Roger Mortimer the traitor, had belonged to the Earls of March. Richard II. had recognised the earl's father as his heir, but after

Richard's deposition no one paid attention to this. This was not only on account of Richard's worthlessness, but because every one felt that the throne was not bound to descend, like a piece of land, to the nearest heir by blood. Up to Norman times the English had been in the habit of regularly electing their kings; and in those days, though they generally chose a near kinsman of the last king, they did not by any means always select his legal heir. In later days, though the form of election had passed away, some right of choice remained to Parliament.



Royal Arms as borne by Henry IV. after about 1403,
and by successive Sovereigns down to 1603.

As a rule, it was found best to let the throne go by hereditary succession. But at various times there have been exceptions to this practice. Accordingly Parliament was within its rights in recognising Henry as king. This should prevent us calling the House of Lancaster, which began with Henry IV., a race of usurpers. But we should remember that, like our present royal house, they ruled through what is called a *parliamentary title*, that is to say, because Parliament had declared them to be kings, and not because they were the nearest by blood to the previous reigning family.

2. Henry IV., owing his throne to Parliament, was compelled to pay more attention to its wishes than Richard II. or even Edward III. had done. His son



Thomas Cranley, Archbishop
of Dublin.

(Showing Archiepiscopal
Vestments, 1397-1417.)

and grandson were also obliged to follow the will of Parliament for the same

The constitutional rule of the Lancastrians.

reason. The result of this was that during the Lancastrian period Parliament had more power than it had ever had before. This period was therefore a time of *constitutional monarchy*. In throwing off the despotic rule of Richard II., the English people took good care to prevent his successors following his example.

3. Another result of Lancastrian rule was the fall of the Lollards. Wycliffe had long been dead, but his followers were still strong. But Henry IV. was a great friend of the Church, and bishops who had helped to win him

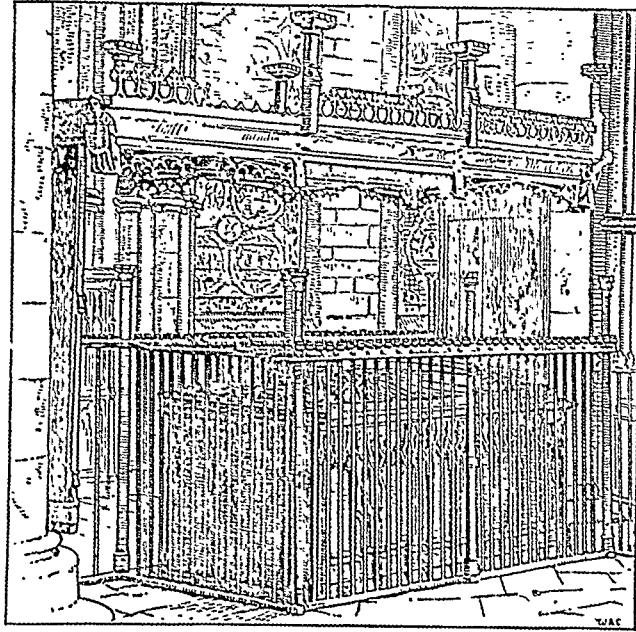
his throne felt so afraid of the Lollards.

The persecution of the Lollards.

that they called upon him to help them to put them down. Many of the Lollards were good and earnest men, but they taught very strange and novel doctrine, which seemed to most pious folk to

be dangerous heresy. In those days it was thought the duty of the Government to put down all wrong

opinions about religion, and most men agreed that the Lollards held unsound views. Parliament therefore passed, in 1401, an Act ordering that all heretics should be burned to death. Many Lollards suffered under this law, and gradually their teaching withered away before the fires of persecution. This shows that the Lollards were only a small part of the nation. You



Tomb of Henry IV., Canterbury Cathedral.

cannot by persecution stamp out a view that most people hold.

4. Henry had been honourable, religious, and high-minded, a good soldier, and a sound statesman. But he did some evil things in his efforts to win and maintain the throne, and the guilt of Richard's blood lay heavy on his soul. Parliament limited his power. The French made successful war against him. The friends of the

The revolts
of the Percies
and Owen
Glendower.

murdered king plotted his death. The nobles who had done most to make him king deserted him, because he would not give them enough power. Among these was the great northern house of Percy, whose heads were *Henry Percy*, Earl of Northumberland, and his son Henry, commonly called *Hotspur*, by reason of his rash valour. In 1403 they raised a rebellion, and agreed to join hands with a bold and able Welshman, *Owen Glendower*, who had already led all Wales to revolt against Henry, and was striving to make himself independent Prince of Wales. Accordingly the Percies marched to the Welsh border to meet Owen. Luckily, however, for Henry, the Welsh chieftain was busy in South Wales and did not appear. The king now came up with an army and defeated the Percies at the *Battle of Shrewsbury*, where Hotspur was killed. Nevertheless old Northumberland rose in revolt once more, and continued to give Henry trouble until he too was slain in another battle. Owen held out in Wales for the rest of Henry's reign, but his power, once so great, gradually grew less, until at last he lost nearly all his followers. But Owen managed to avoid surrender and died a free man on his hills. Long before this, however, Henry IV. had broken the back of the difficulties that beset him. But he was worn out in the struggle, and after years of ill-health died, aged before his time, in 1413.

CHAPTER XVIII

Henry V., 1413-1422

(Married Catharine of France,

Principal Persons :

Charles VI., King of France ; his son, the Dauphin Charles ; John and Philip, Dukes of Burgundy.

Principal Dates :

1413. Accession of Henry V.

1415. Battle of Agincourt.

1420. Treaty of Troyes.

1422. Death of Henry V.

1. The next king, Henry V., was the eldest son of Henry IV. Many stories have been told about the wild life which he had led when he was Prince of Wales. But though there may be some truth in them, he had also from his earliest manhood been well trained both in war and politics. As a mere boy he had fought against Owen Glendower, and when his father's health broke down he had helped to govern his kingdom, and had perhaps shown rather too much eagerness to step into his place. No one now gainsaid his title, and he was therefore able to rule much more firmly than his father. He was a splendid soldier, a popular and wise statesman, and a much better man than the tales told of his youth would have led one to expect. But he was always rather cold and unsympathetic. He had a wonderful power of believing that whatever he wished to do was right; but right

Character of
Henry V.

or wrong, whatever he set his hand to, he did with all his might.

2. Henry was greedy for military glory, and was tempted to renew Edward III.'s claim to the throne of France. This was absurd enough, for he was not, as we have seen, the nearest heir to Edward III., so that even if Edward's title had been a good one, it would not have descended to Henry V. But the French had

Henry
renews the
Hundred
Years' War.



Henry V.

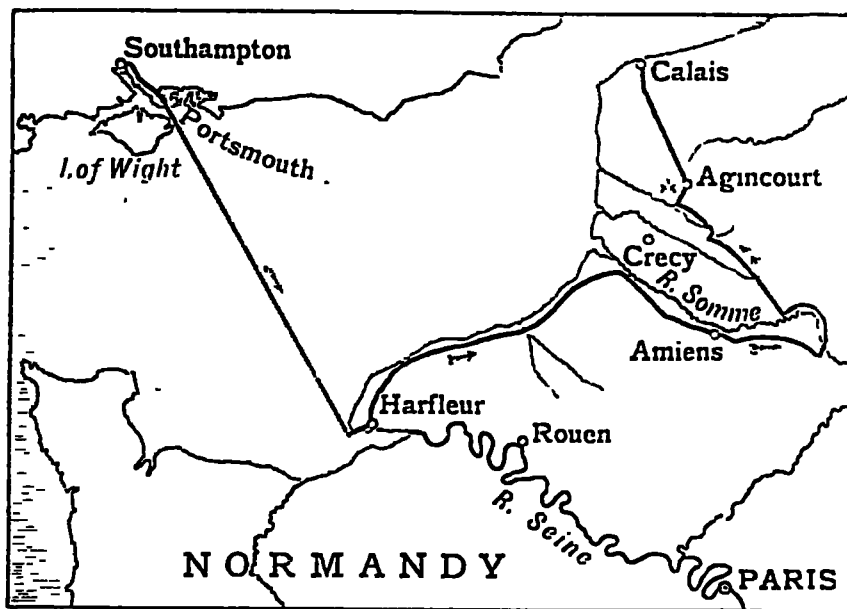
(From a Painting in the National Portrait Gallery.)

annoyed Henry and his father by their friendship for Richard. Moreover, Charles VI., King of France, had gone out of his mind, and France had been reduced to a wretched state through the quarrels of her nobles with each other. By this time Frenchmen and Englishmen hated each other so much that neither side cared much for the reason why they

were fighting, so long as they had a chance of coming to blows.

3. In 1415 Henry crossed over to Normandy and took *Harfleur*, then the chief port at the mouth of the Seine. The siege was long and severe, and Henry lost more soldiers through sickness than from the weapons of the enemy. After its capture Henry could only march through Normandy towards Calais. His movements were very like those

The Battle of Agincourt.

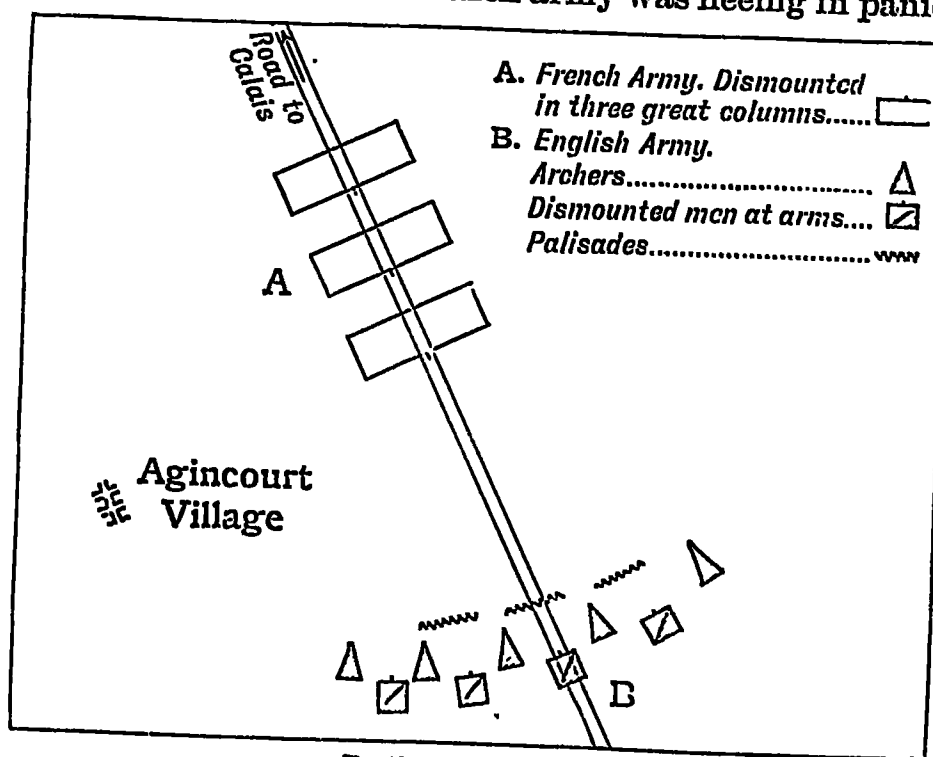


Walker & Cockerell sc.

Henry v.'s Campaign in 1415.

of Edward III. in 1346. Like his great-grandfather, he was pursued by a French army, far outnumbering his own. Again, like Edward, he was forced to fight a battle to cover his retreat. Finding that the French army had got between him and Calais, he prepared to meet their attack on 25th October at *Agincourt*, not very far from Crecy. It was Crecy over again. The English fought on foot, and set up palisades of long stakes to protect the archers. The French men-at-arms also dismounted. But they long hesitated to

make the expected onslaught. At last Henry ordered his archers to shift their stakes forwards and provoke an attack. Then at last the enemy was forced to charge, but our archers shot down so many that their whole line was thrown into confusion. The dismounted English men-at-arms now advanced, and dealt lusty strokes against the disordered and dispirited enemy. Before long the whole French army was fleeing in panic



Battle of Agincourt.

from the field. Seldom was so great a victory won with so little loss. But our army was so weak that all it could do was to complete its journey to Calais.

4. Two years later Henry led another expedition to Normandy, and set to work to conquer that country bit by bit. He made rapid progress, and at last captured Rouen, the capital. Not even English victories could shame the French nobles into forgetting their quarrels with each other and uniting against the enemy. At last

The murder
of Burgundy,
and the
Treaty of
Troyes.

John, Duke of Burgundy, the leader of one of the French factions, was treacherously murdered in the presence of *Charles the Dauphin*, eldest son of the mad king, and the chief of the other French party. Eager to avenge his father's death, *Philip*, the new Duke of Burgundy, made an alliance with the English. Henry was already strong when he was dependent only on his sturdy English soldiers. But his alliance with Burgundy, whose party was the strongest in France, made him irresistible. In 1420 the French were forced to make the *Treaty of Troyes*, by which Henry married Catharine, the daughter of Charles VI., and was recognised as the successor of his father-in-law at his death, and regent for the rest of his life. The result of this was that most of the north of France submitted to the united English and Burgundian power. But Charles the Dauphin held out in the south against the treaty which took away from him his inheritance.

5. There was still hard fighting to be done, and Henry accordingly led a third expedition to France. In the course of this he was suddenly cut off in 1422 when only thirty-five years of age. His mad father-in-law followed him to the tomb within two months. Thus it was that Henry's infant son, Henry VI., succeeded before he was a year old to the two kingdoms of England and France.

Death of
Henry V.

CHAPTER XIX

Henry VI., 1422-1461 (Married Margaret of Anjou)

Principal Persons :

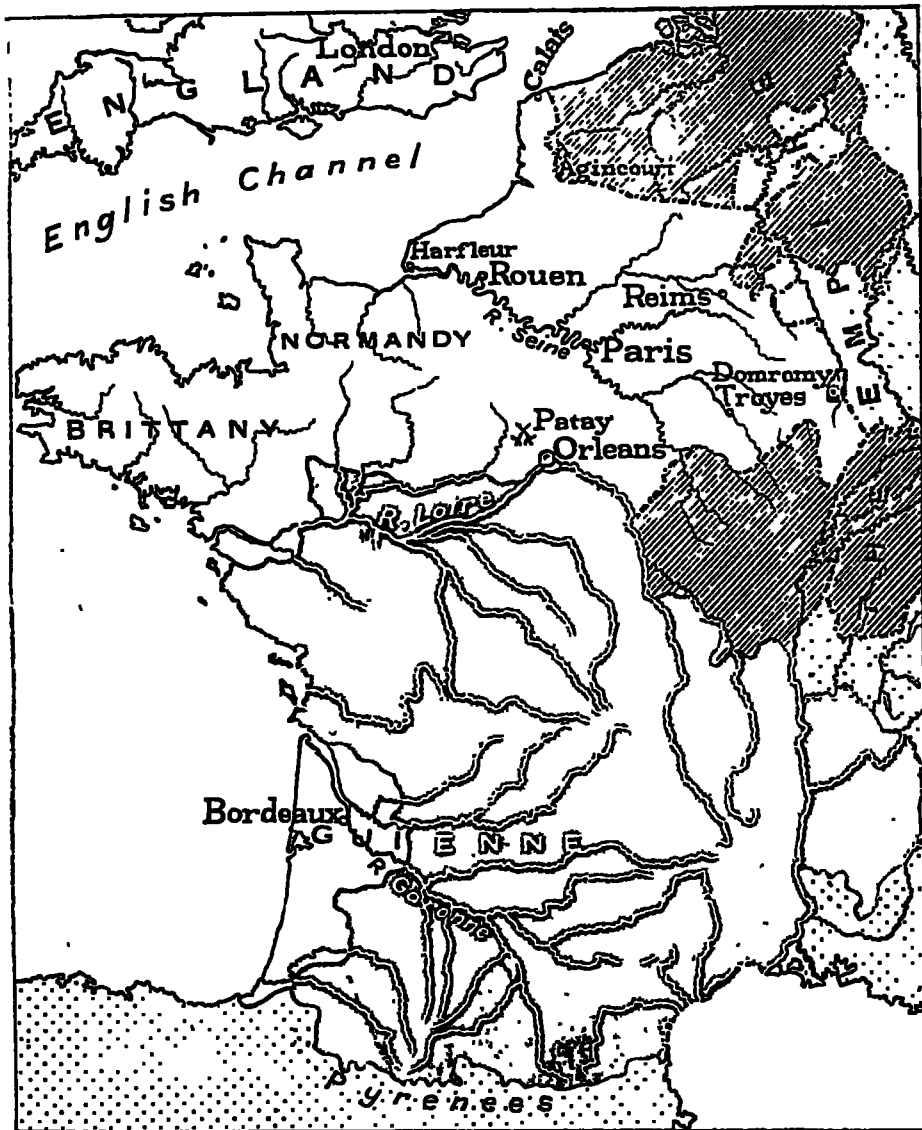
John, Duke of Bedford ; Charles VII., King of France ; Philip, Duke of Burgundy ; Joan of Arc ; Jack Cade ; Richard, Duke of York, and his son, Edward, Earl of March, afterwards Edward IV.

Principal Dates :

- 1422. Accession of Henry VI.
- 1429. Joan of Arc raises the siege of Orleans.
- 1435. Death of Bedford, and end of the alliance of England and Burgundy.
- 1453. England loses Gascony.
- 1455. Battle of St. Albans.
- 1460. Battle of Wakefield.
- 1461. Deposition of Henry VI., and Battle of Towton.

1. It was a lucky thing for the little Henry VI. that the government of both England and France, during the first years of his reign, fell to his uncle, *John, Duke of Bedford*, a younger son of Henry IV. Bedford did all that was possible to uphold the English power abroad and to keep on good terms with Duke Philip of Burgundy, upon whose support his hopes to make his nephew a real king of France depended. But it was unlikely that Frenchmen should consent to be ruled by a foreign king, and it was a bad thing for the English themselves to attempt to conquer a great and proud nation like the French. But faction

The Regent Bedford upholds the English cause in France.



- English Territory.*
 French.
 Burgundian.
X *Battlefields.*
 Territory other than French, British, or Burgundian.

THE ENGLISH KING'S DOMINIONS IN FRANCE IN 1422.
 (After the Treaty of Troyes.)

hopelessly split up the French into rival parties, and the support which many Frenchmen gave to Henry made Bedford's task seem less desperate than it really was. Nearly all North France and Paris itself acknowledged King Henry, though here, even, there was still much fighting. Bedford won victories which showed that the English were still better soldiers than the French. But he was not strong enough to rule the country that he conquered. North France gradually fell into a terrible condition of weakness and misery.

2. South of the Loire Charles the Dauphin was recognised as *Charles VII.* by all save the Gascons, who were ever faithful to their English dukes. The new king was idle, careless, and faithless, but remained strong enough to hold his own, though his dominions fell into as wretched a state as the north.

The Siege
of Orleans.

At last, in 1429, Bedford took a fresh step in advance. He besieged the important town of *Orleans*, which commanded one of the few bridges which in those days spanned the broad river Loire. Orleans was soon hard pressed, and if it fell, the road to the south stood open.

3. At this moment of the worst troubles of France, there occurred one of the most wonderful things in history. One day there came to King

The mission
of Joan of
Arc.

Charles's court a simple country girl named *Joan Darc*, or, as the English called her, *Joan of Arc*. While watching her sheep near her home at Domrémi, on the banks of the Meuse, she had pondered long over the evils which the war had brought upon her country. At last, as she firmly believed, God revealed Himself to her in visions and bade her undertake the work of saving France from the foreigner and restoring the blessings of peace. When she first told of her visions, every one mocked at her, but before long her faith and

earnestness prevailed. She was sent right through central France to the king's court on the Loire. 'The King of Heaven,' said she to Charles, 'bids me tell you that you shall be anointed and crowned in the city of Reims, and that you shall be deputy of the King of Heaven, who is also King of France.' The careless king had little faith in her words, but things were so desperate that he let her do what she would. She donned armour like a man, had a sacred banner fashioned for her, and rode at the head of a force despatched to help the garrison of Orleans.

4. Joan fought her way into the town and filled the famine-stricken soldiers with a new hope. She bade the English quit the land and recognise Charles as king. Ere long she drove the English from the walls of Orleans, and soon after won a pitched battle over them in the open field at *Patay*. So many English victories had been won that the French themselves had a fixed belief that they were bound to be beaten if they ventured upon a regular battle. But the Maid of Orleans, as Joan was now called, changed all that. She broke the long tide of disaster, and made Frenchmen again have faith in themselves and their country.

The relief of
Orleans, and
the Battle of
Patay.

5. Joan now fulfilled her promise by leading Charles through the heart of the enemy's country to *Reims*, where she stood by while he was crowned and anointed with the holy oil which, as was believed, had been sent down from heaven for the coronation of the first Christian king of the French. After this ceremony Charles retired beyond the Loire.

Coronation
of Charles
VII.

6. The first stage of Joan's work had now been accomplished. But she did not regard her mission as completed until she had driven the English out of France. She therefore still remained with the army.

But success had made her over-confident, and fortune soon turned against her. At last she fell into the hands of the enemy, who, in 1431, burnt her as a witch at Rouen. She had done such wonderful things that the English, no less than the French, believed that there was something supernatural about her. But while the French believed that she was a maid sent from God, her enemies professed that she was inspired by the devil. She made such a pathetic end that the English themselves were convinced of her nobility of purpose. 'We are undone,' said they, 'for this maid whom we have burned is a saint indeed.' The English treated Joan cruelly enough, but it is only fair to say that the priests and lawyers who did her to death were Frenchmen of the Burgundian party.

7. The maid's work outlasted her martyrdom. The whole French people was now on the side of Charles.

The fall of the English power in France, and the end of the Hundred Years' War. Bedford struggled nobly to maintain the English power, but died in 1435. Burgundy made peace with Charles, and Paris opened its gates to the national king. It was in vain that the English sought to keep Normandy and Gascony by accepting a truce and agreeing to their young king's marriage with *Margaret of Anjou*, the niece of Charles VII. In a few years the French renewed the war, and easily drove the English out of Normandy. At last they fell on Gascony itself, which, in 1453, finally passed to Charles's hands. After the loss of this last remnant of the inheritance of Eleanor of Aquitaine, Calais alone remained to the English king in France. Thanks to Joan, France was once more a nation.

8. During Henry VI.'s long minority things went very badly in England. The nobles quarrelled bitterly with each other, and Council and Parliament

could not restrain them. Nor did matters get better when Henry grew up. He was good, intelligent, pious, and meek, but he was not strong enough, either in mind or body, to rule England. His wife, Margaret of Anjou, had the vigour and courage which he lacked, but she was unpopular as a Frenchwoman, and

England
during
Henry VI.'s
reign.



Henry VI.

(From a Picture in the National Portrait Gallery.)

thought more of helping her own friends than of doing her best for her adopted country. Englishmen grew indignant when Normandy and Gascony were lost, and accused the king and his ministers of treachery. The men of Kent, as restless as in Wat Tyler's days, rose in revolt under *Jack Cade*. Cade captured London, and was only driven out and subdued with great difficulty.

9. England had now fallen into the condition of France in the days of the mad Charles VI. The king was no longer a real ruler, and the nobles fought with each other as they pleased. In despair of Henry, men turned to his cousin *Richard, Duke of York*, the heir of Lionel of Clarence, Edward III.'s second son, and the representative of the great house of the earls of March. By birth York had a nearer claim to the throne than Henry. But at first there was no thought of making him king. It was hoped that he would drive away the queen's favourites and help Henry to rule more firmly. In 1453 the king went mad for a time, and it seemed a good way of settling matters to make York *Protector of the Realm*. This meant that York, without the name of king, did the king's work. Unluckily for the nation, Henry VI. got better, and once more went back to his old advisers.

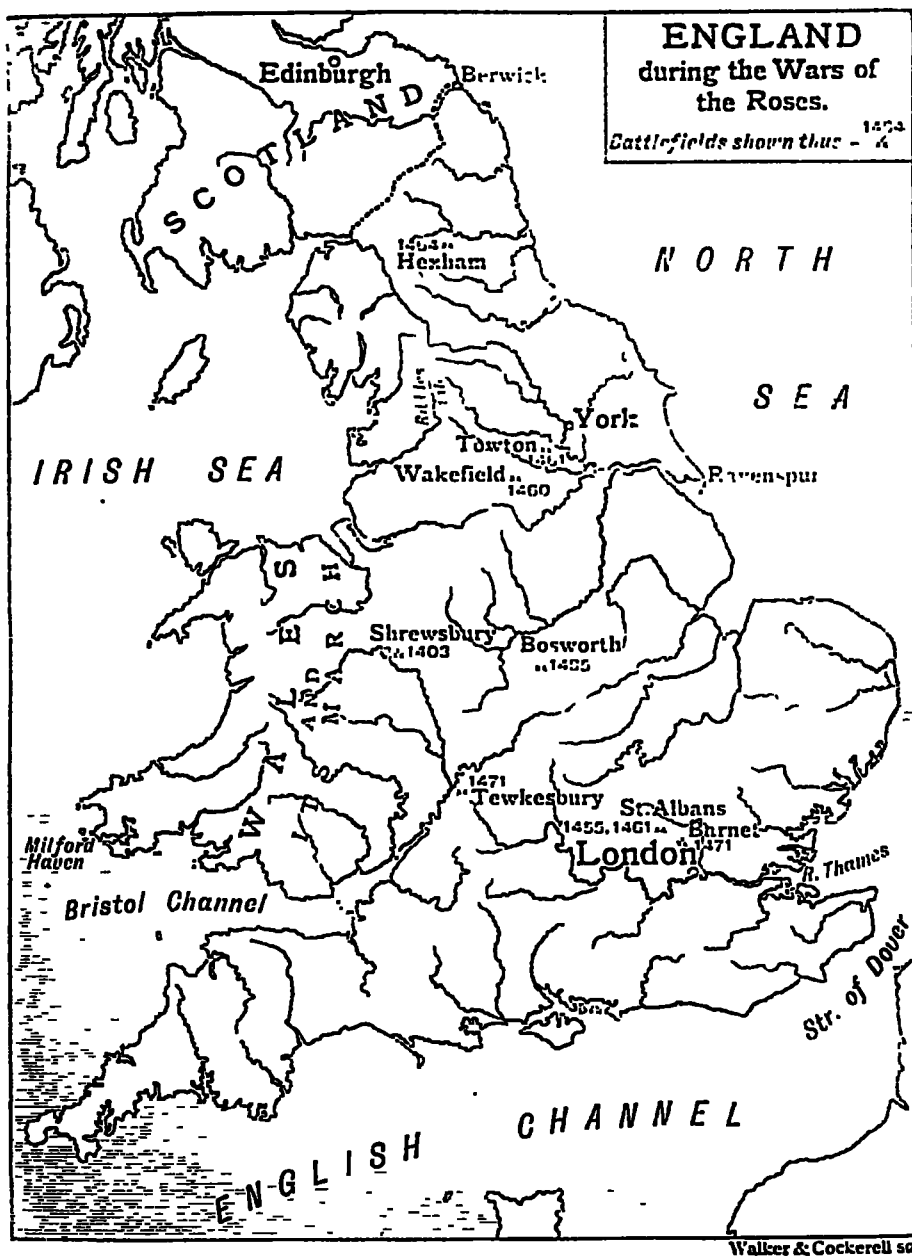
10. York's protectorate was put an end to, but before long he raised an army and sought to seize the government by force. In 1455 he won the *Battle of St. Albans*, and took Henry prisoner. With this battle begin the *Wars of the Roses*, so called in later days because the House of York had a white rose as its badge and the House of Lancaster was thought to have a red rose. In reality, however, the red rose was not used till later, when it became the badge of the house of Tudor, which, as we shall see, finally became the heir of Lancaster. Properly, then, the phrase 'Wars of the Roses' is a misnomer. But it is one so universally used that it must still be allowed to stand. Whatever their name, these wars lasted for more than thirty years. It was not, however, a period of continued fighting, but of short wars, divided by longer periods of weak government.

11. Before long, York claimed to be king by reason

-1455.]

Henry VI.

175



of his descent from the elder son of Edward III. The meek Henry did little to resist him, but Margaret fought like a tigress on behalf of her husband and of her only son, *Edward, Prince of Wales*. At last, in

Deposition
of Henry VI. 1460, she defeated and slew York at the battle of *Wakefield*. Her triumph was,

however, but a short one. York's eldest son, *Edward, Earl of March*, now Duke of York by his father's death, soon avenged the massacre at Wakefield. He took possession of London, and proclaimed himself Edward IV. Henry and Margaret fled to the north, where the Lancastrians were strongest. Edward soon followed them. On Palm Sunday, 1461, the Yorkists won the crowning victory of the war at *Towton*, a few miles south of York. This secured the throne for Edward of York. Margaret fled to Scotland, and finally took ship for France. Henry hid himself away among the faithful peasants of Ribblesdale. At last, however, he was discovered and imprisoned in the Tower of London.

CHAPTER XX

The House of York, 1461-1485

EDWARD IV., 1461-1483, m. Elizabeth Woodville.

HENRY VI. restored, 1470-1471.

EDWARD V., 1483.

RICHARD III., 1483-1485. m. Anne Neville.

Principal Persons :

Richard Neville, Earl of Warwick ; George, Duke of Clarence ; Richard, Duke of Gloucester, afterwards Richard III. ; Edward, Prince of Wales, son of Henry VI. ; Richard, Duke of York, son of Edward IV. ; the Duke of Buckingham ; the Lady Margaret Beaufort ; Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond ; Caxton the Printer.

Principal Dates :

1461. Accession of Edward IV.

1470. Restoration of Henry VI.

1471. Battles of Barnet and Tewkesbury, and Restoration of Edward IV.

1483. Reign of Edward V.

1483. Richard III. deposes Edward V.

1485. Richard III. slain at Bosworth.

1. Edward IV. claimed to be king as the nearest heir of Edward III., and looked upon his cousin Henry as a usurper. Yet few cared a straw whether Edward or Henry was the rightful heir. Edward won the throne because he was the wiser man and better soldier. His victory at Towton was his real claim to rule, and most Englishmen were glad to have him as king, because they hoped that he would govern the country better than his cousin had done. Those who regretted Henry most

Why
Edward IV.
became
king.

were the fierce barons of the north and west, who had profited by his weakness to build up their own power. The townsman, the trader and the artisan, the whole of the south and east, then the richest parts of the country, were in favour of Edward. The



Edward IV.

(From a Picture in the National Portrait Gallery.)

Londoners were enthusiastic on his side. Some of the greatest nobles were also among Edward's supporters. Foremost among these was the House of *Nerille*, whose chief, Richard, Earl of Warwick, did so much to secure him the throne, that he was called the *King-Maker*. Warwick had enormous estates all over the country, and could raise an army among his own tenants. Gentlemen with broad lands of their own thought it

an honour to wear his badge, the *Bear and Ragged Staff*. He had done even more for Edward than the



The Bear and
Ragged Staff.
(Enlarged from a
Drawing in Rous'
Life of the Earl
Warwick.)

Percies had done for Henry IV., and as in the case of the Percies, the overweening power of the Nevilles was the most immediate danger before the new king.

2. Edward and Warwick soon began to quarrel. Warwick wanted Edward to make peace with France and wed a French queen, but Edward fell in love with a

Quarrel of
Edward IV.
and War-
wick.

beautiful young widow named *Elizabeth Woodville*, and married her despite Warwick's advice. The brothers,

sons, and other kinsmen of the queen soon formed a little party: bitterly hostile to Warwick, and entirely trusted by Edward. In revenge, Warwick married his daughter to Edward's brother *George, Duke of Clarence*, and tried to set up his son-in-law against the king. These new factions soon led to renewed fighting. For the moment Edward got the upper hand. In 1470 Warwick and Clarence fled to France. There they met Margaret of Anjou, and made friends with their old enemy. It was agreed that an attempt should be made to drive Edward from the throne.

3. Warwick soon landed in England. So many now flocked to his camp that Edward, unable even to make a fight, fled to the Netherlands. Warwick marched to London, took Henry VI. out of the Tower, and restored him to the throne.

The res-
toration of
Henry VI.

For a second time Warwick had merited his title of king-maker. He was now monarch in all but name, for Henry's weak wits had been shattered by his misfortunes, and he was, we are told, 'more like a sack of wool than a crowned king.'

4. In 1471, less than six months after his flight, Edward IV. came back to England. His partisans

rallied to his cause, and he marched to London, where he received a royal welcome. He took Henry VI.

Edward IV. prisoner once more, and then went out to recover the meet Warwick. On Easter Sunday, 1471, throne.

Edward and Warwick fought out their quarrel at *Barnet*, ten miles north of London. The wretched Clarence deserted his father-in-law, and Warwick himself perished on the field. About the same time Margaret of Anjou, and her son *Edward, Prince of Wales*, who had till now tarried in France, landed in the south of England. Edward IV. fell upon their army at *Tewkesbury*, where the Avon runs into the Severn. There he won another complete victory. Margaret and the little Prince of Wales were taken prisoners. The prince was brutally slain, but Margaret was finally sent back to France. Edward returned in triumph to London, and on the very same day Henry VI. was murdered in the Tower. Of all the ruthless deeds of this cruel time, the slaying of this gentle and saintly king was the worst. It was believed that both Henry and his son had been done to death by the hand of *Richard, Duke of Gloucester*, Edward's youngest brother.

5. Edward IV. reigned without a rival for the rest of his life. At first he took his brother Clarence back to favour, but after a few years he shut him up in the Tower and privately put him to death. For the rest of his reign Edward ruled in peace. He was popular with the people because he kept the nobles in good order, and because he was genial, hearty, and friendly to the gentry and merchants. In one way he governed very differently from the Lancastrians. He cared little for Parliaments, and summoned them seldom. When he wanted money, he did not always go to Parliament, but often asked his subjects to give him what he called a *benevolence*. This was supposed to be a gift offered

The last
years of
Edward IV.

freely to the king, but in reality every one had to pay it. In 1483 Edward died when still a young man.

6. Edward iv. left two young sons, *Edward*, Prince of Wales, and *Richard*, Duke of York. The elder of these was now proclaimed Edward v. But the children were under the care of their mother, Elizabeth Woodville, and it was likely that she and her kinsmen would now have it all their own way. The great nobles, foremost among whom was the *Duke of Buckingham*, hated the queen's upstart relations. They now felt that they must strike at once, or an intolerable yoke would be thrust upon them. They found an ally in Richard of Gloucester, who was eager to supplant his nephews and win the throne. At first Gloucester got himself named *Protector*. He then drove the queen's kinsmen from power, and took away from her the custody of her children, whom he shut up in the Tower.

The reign of
Edward V.

7. A few weeks later Gloucester spread a report that Elizabeth Woodville had never been lawfully married to his brother, and that the two princes therefore had no right to reign. Buckingham made a speech to the citizens of London, in which he declared the rumour to be true, and urged that Richard should himself be recognised as king. The Londoners threw up their caps in the air and cried 'King Richard! King Richard.' At once they went to the duke and begged him to become king. After a show of hesitation he gave his consent. Next day he was proclaimed Richard III. Nothing more was heard of his nephews, and most people believed that he murdered them in the Tower. But so secretly was the deed done that some men thought that the two boys had escaped and were kept somewhere in hiding, waiting for better times. But Richard's cruelty overshot the mark. He had been

Richard III
drives his
nephews
from the
throne.

recognised as king for much the same reasons as those which had caused Edward iv. to be accepted. A strong, wise, and experienced man was likely to be a more useful ruler than a boy. But fierce and hard as were the English of those days, they grew disgusted



Richard III.

(From a Picture in the National Portrait Gallery.)

with Richard. He was already suspected as having murdered Henry vi. and Henry's son. This new guilt soon began to tell heavily against him. Yet it is rather hard on Richard that he should have had such a bad reputation in history. After all, he was no whit worse than his brother Edward.

8. Richard III. tried to make himself popular by passing good laws, and in particular by abolishing

benevolences, by which Edward IV. had raised so much money without asking Parliament for it. But he never had a fair chance of showing what sort of king he would make. His ally, Buckingham, thought that he was not sufficiently rewarded for his services, and rose in revolt against him. But Buckingham had not enough wisdom to play the part of a King-Maker. Richard easily overpowered him, and struck off his head.

Richard III.
tries to make
himself
popular.

9. Richard had soon to meet a more dangerous enemy. After the murder of Henry VI. and his son, the House of Lancaster had almost died out. But there was still left a representative of John of Gaunt in *Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond*. On his father's side, Henry Tudor sprang from a family of Welsh gentlemen of no high rank. But his mother, *Lady Margaret Beaufort*, was the heiress of a family called the Beauforts, who were descended from the children of John of Gaunt by a second marriage. Accordingly Henry of Richmond was looked up to as a possible Lancastrian leader, and now that the Yorkist faction was divided, the chance of Lancaster was again come. Tudor had long been living in exile. He now landed in Milford Haven at the head of a little army, and received a rapturous welcome from his Welsh fellow-countrymen. He soon gathered enough soldiers together to be able to march against Richard. The armies met at *Bosworth* in Leicestershire, where Richard lost his life. His crown was picked up on the field, and, after the battle, was put on Richmond's head. The Lancastrian exile was henceforth King Henry VII.

The invasion
of Henry
Tudor, and
the death of
Richard III.
at Bosworth.

10. Despite the fierce fighting that had lasted so long, England did not stand still. Life was less heroic and noble than it had been in the days of Edward I.

The Church had decayed, art and scholarship had become more dull and commonplace, and statesmen seem to have grown more greedy and selfish. Nevertheless, life became more tolerable for the ordinary man, who, even when the nobles were fighting one against the other, managed to till his farm or sell his goods in peace. The landlords grew rich with the increase of the wool trade, and the business men in the towns profited by the growth of our foreign commerce, though this as yet was but in its beginnings. When Edward IV. and Henry VII. brought back strong government, progress became rapid.

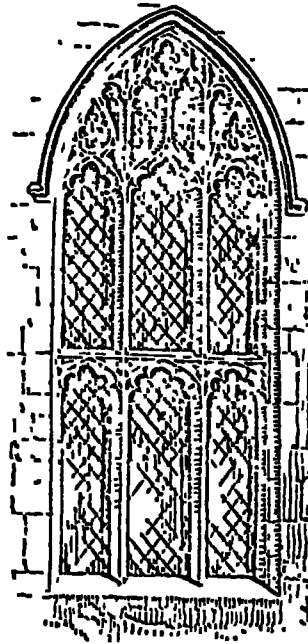
11. The prosperity of the towns was shown by the large number of parish churches rebuilt on a larger

England
in the
fifteenth.
century

scale in the late Gothic style, which we call the *Perpendicular* because

of the use it made of upright lines and flat or square panels, windows, and doors. This style, like the age that produced it, is not so original or pure as that which inspired the churches of Henry III. or Edward I.'s time, but it is very rich, impressive, and magnificent. Private houses were now built in a more durable and comfortable fashion, and even the warlike nobles gave up erecting gloomy castles for their abodes, and set up in their stead large, well-lighted, and roomy mansions, which, though following the lines of the old castles, and capable of

standing a siege, were constructed with regard to the comfort of those who always lived in them rather than with the view of keeping out the enemy. A



Perpendicular Window,
Headcorn, Kent.

magnificent specimen of this type is here shown in the picture of *Tattershall Castle*, Lincolnshire, built by one of Henry VI.'s ministers. Tattershall is also



Tattershall Castle, Lincolnshire. Built between 1433 and 1455.

remarkable as one of the earliest brick buildings in this country. In earlier days our ancestors built either of wood or stone.

12. *Gunpowder* had been utilised for warfare during the days of Edward III. The earliest muskets were

very heavy and clumsy, and in battle men still preferred to trust to bows and arrows. But large cannon were already cast that could batter down strong walls and castles, impregnable except by famine in an earlier age. Armour

Gunpowder
and plate
armour.

became more heavy, costly, and elaborate. Instead of the *chain mail* of earlier days, knights from Edward III.'s time onwards wore what is called *plate armour*. This consisted of solid plates of steel, buckled or riveted together, and cleverly fashioned so as to ward off blows, or turn aside arrows and bullets. Examples of plate armour are given in the print of Edward the Black Prince on page 145, and here in that of Richard Beauchamp, Earl of Warwick. But plate armour was complicated, heavy, and costly, and gradually became of little use, as firearms grew so effective that they could send bullets through any plate of iron or steel that the soldier was strong enough to bear. Nevertheless, armour was retained, and remained very elaborate until long after this period.

13. The changes in building and in the art of war foreshadowed still more important movements. The period of history

The end of
the Middle
Ages.

called the *Middle Ages* was slowly dying away, and we are now on the threshold of modern times. It was an age of discoveries, of



Richard Beauchamp, Earl of Warwick (died 1439).

(From Monument in the Lady Chapel, St. Mary's Church, Warwick.)

new inventions, of greater love of knowledge, and a wider interest in man and nature. Before long *Christopher Columbus* discovered the New World called *America*. It was already the time of the *Revival of Letters*, or the *Renascence*, that is, the new birth of learning and thought. None of these new movements had as yet begun to affect England very much, but already, and especially in Italy, there was wonderful progress being made in many directions. And even in England some men began to be interested in the new movements. From the dying Middle Ages the Modern World was slowly growing.

14. One of the great inventions of these times was the discovery of *Printing*. Up to the middle of the fifteenth century the only way of multiplying books was to copy them out laboriously by hand. But so many people now wanted

The invention of Printing.

to read, that they grew impatient at the slowness with which *manuscript* or hand-written books were written out, and the high price which they cost. At last some shrewd Germans discovered a way of printing books by movable types, so that a large number of impressions could be taken from the same type. The result was that the price of books was suddenly cheapened, and a great stimulus was given to reading and

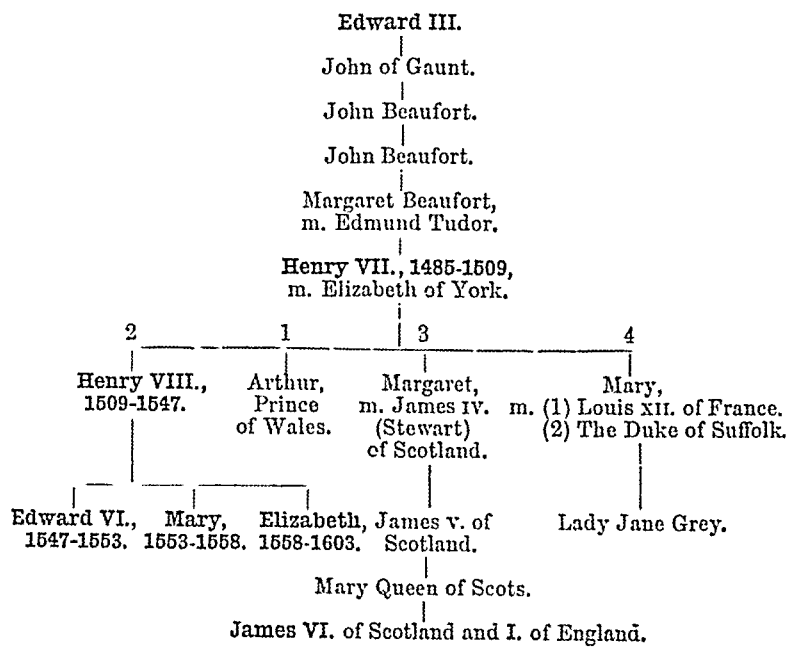
study. In Edward IV.'s time printing was brought into England by *William Caxton*,

William Caxton.

who, having learned the art abroad, set up a press under the shadow of Westminster Abbey, from which he produced a large number of useful and beautiful books. Before long reading became much more common, and men who read soon got into the way of thinking for themselves. When men began to think for themselves, modern times were already at hand.

The House of York

GENEALOGY OF THE HOUSE OF TUDOR.



BOOK V

THE HOUSE OF TUDOR, 1485-1603

CHAPTER XXI

Henry VII., 1485-1509

(Married Elizabeth of York.)

Principal Persons :

The Earl of Warwick ; Lambert Simnel ; Perkin Warbeck ; Ferdinand and Isabella, King and Queen of Spain ; Catharine of Aragon ; Arthur and Henry, Princes of Wales ; Cardinal Morton, Archbishop of Canterbury.

Principal Dates :

- 1485. Accession of Henry VII.
- 1487. Lambert Simnel's imposture.
- 1497. Capture of Perkin Warbeck.
- 1503. Marriage of James IV. and Margaret Tudor.
- 1509. Death of Henry VII.

1. Like Henry IV., Henry VII. found it was hard to maintain the throne that he had won so easily. A silent, reserved, cold, and selfish man, he never shone like the free-handed Edward IV. or the brilliant Richard III. But he was prudent, frugal, painstaking, and seldom wantonly cruel. He saw that England would never be prosperous again until the factions of York and Lancaster were ended. He wished to be king of the whole nation, and not merely king of a party. With this object he married *Elizabeth of York*, the daughter of Edward IV. After her brothers' dis-

Henry VII.'s character and claims to the throne.

appearance, Elizabeth became, according to Yorkist notions, heir to the throne. By this match Henry hoped to conciliate the Yorkists as well as his own Lancastrian friends. If he himself were not lawful heir, his children would be as much recognised by



Henry VII.

(From a Picture in the National Portrait Gallery.)

Yorkists as Lancastrians. Things happened exactly as Henry had foreseen. His son Henry VIII. was honoured by all as England's rightful king.

2. The Yorkists had now no leaders. Their head was Henry's wife, and the next heir, the *Earl of Warwick*, a son of the murdered Clarence, was a close prisoner in the Tower. Having no real prince in whose name they could fight, the Yorkists set up an impostor. A pretty boy, about

Yorkist plots
and pre-
tenders.

twelve years old, was taken to Ireland, where the Yorkists were strong, and it was given out that he was the Earl of Warwick, who, it was said, had escaped from the Tower. In reality he was *Lambert Simnel*, a poor man's son from Oxford. In 1487 the Yorkists in



Queen Elizabeth, Consort of Henry VII.
(From a Painting in the National Portrait Gallery.)

Ireland crowned him as king in Dublin, and soon sent him over to England to try his fortune there. Meanwhile Henry took the real Warwick from prison and showed him to the Londoners, that all men might know that the youth from Ireland was a cheat. So it was that few English joined Simnel's army, and Henry had little trouble in defeating it. The king showed his contempt for Simnel by pardoning him and making him a turnspit in the royal kitchen.

3. Soon after a more formidable impostor arose

in *Perkin Warbeck*, a bright, attractive young man from Tournai in the Netherlands, who gave out that he was Richard, Duke of York, the younger of the princes supposed to have been murdered in the Tower. So well did he play his part that many believed in him, and for many years the *White Rose of England*—as Perkin was called by his friends—gave Henry a great deal of trouble. Like Simnel he first went to Ireland, where he won a large following. But he was also helped by Henry's foreign enemies, who were glad thus to weaken England. The French and the Scots both acknowledged Perkin as Richard of York. But Henry made friends with the foreigners, and persuaded them to cease supporting him. The impostor then boldly resolved to risk everything by exciting rebellion in England. In 1497 he landed in Cornwall, where the people had a little time before risen in revolt against Henry's grievous taxes. Many of the Cornishmen followed his banner, but the king's forces came down, and a battle seemed at hand. The pretender now lost heart, and ran away to a monastery, hoping that the Church would protect him. Thereupon the Cornishmen went back to their homes. Warbeck soon gave himself up to the king, who promised to spare his life. He was imprisoned in the Tower, where he made friends with the captive Warwick. Some time later both were put to death on the charge of having formed a plot to seize the Tower and upset the king's throne. With them the Yorkist party came to an end. The Wars of the Roses were at last over.

4. Henry had now put down his enemies at home, and bought off his enemies abroad. He strove by prudent marriages to make his position still more secure. The greatest princes in Europe in those days were *Ferdinand, King of Aragon*, and *Isabella, Queen of Castile*, who had by

Henry VII.'s
Spanish
alliance.

marrying each other joined their kingdoms together to form the united kingdom of Spain. Henry sought to get Ferdinand and Isabella on his side, by faithfully following their wishes and by marrying his eldest son, *Arthur, Prince of Wales*, to their youngest daughter, *Catharine of Aragon*. However, the sickly young prince died soon after the wedding. Henry was anxious not to lose the advantages of the Spanish match, so he proposed that Catharine should marry his younger son, the future *Henry VIII.* who was now made Prince of Wales. The marriage of a man with his brother's widow was against the law of the Church, but the Pope gave a special licence or *dispensation*, allowing the union in this particular case. Later on, great trouble arose from this match. For the moment, however, Henry got what he most wanted. Catharine remained in England, and her father still kept good friends with Henry.

5. Since the days of Edward III. Scotland had remained an independent nation, closely allied to France, and bitterly hostile to England. The weakness of England under York and Lancaster had allowed Scotland to become more powerful and prosperous. It was now ruled by kings of the *House of Stewart*, the first of whom, Robert II., who became king in 1371, owed his throne to his father's marriage with Margaret, the daughter and heiress of Robert Bruce. *James IV.*, Stewart, was now King of Scots, and in 1503 Henry VII. gave him his eldest daughter, Margaret, in marriage. Henry hoped through this match to break down the old alliance between the Scots and the French, and make the English and Scots better friends. Great things were expected from this union of the Scotch thistle with the English rose, and great things came at last, for just a hundred years later the great-grandson of James and Margaret joined together England and

The marriage of Margaret Tudor and James IV. of Scotland.

Scotland under his rule. But it was long before the English and Scots forgot their ancient enmity, and James IV. soon went back to the French alliance.

6. Henry VII. set steadily to work to build up the royal power. Lancastrian though he was, he ruled after the despotic fashion of Edward IV. rather than in the constitutional way of the royal power. three Henries. He summoned few Parliaments, and did not scruple to raise money by *benevolences*, saying that the law of Richard against them was not a binding law since Richard was no true king. He chose wise ministers to help him, the chief of them being *Cardinal Morton*, who was both Lord Chancellor and Archbishop of Canterbury. A story is told of Morton that shows how shrewdly he drew money from the pockets of Englishmen. If Morton heard that a man was living with great pomp and show, he used to tell him 'You are spending so much money that you are surely very rich, and therefore well able to give large sums to the king.' If, however, Morton saw that a man was living in a poor fashion, he was accustomed to say, 'You must have saved a great deal of money by your thrifty ways. and therefore you can well afford to let the king have some of your savings.' This plan was called *Morton's fork*, because if one point did not touch the man, the other did. By such means Henry was able to hoard up large sums.

7. The greatest service that Henry VII. did to England was in breaking down the power of the nobles.

The Wars of the Roses had really been caused by this over-mighty influence of the baronage. The nobles not only owned vast estates, and compelled their tenants to fight for them, but they allowed all men, who were willing to do so, to wear their badge or *livery*, and every man who wore the nobleman's livery felt bound

to support his lord against all the world, while the lord considered himself obliged to save his friends from punishment, even if the law courts passed sentences against them. Henry VII. now managed to abolish this custom. He also set up a new court called the *Star Chamber*, because it met in a room whose ceiling was painted with stars. Its special business was to keep the nobles in order. The richest barons now learned that they must obey the law like any other man.

8. Henry's policy made England quite a different country. Bit by bit men forgot their rough fighting ways, and settled down to work at their trades, knowing that the king would protect them and see that they had their rights. The popular Tudor despotism.

But as the result of this, the Tudor kings became very much more powerful than our earlier monarchs. Englishmen lost some of their freedom in return for better peace and order. But in the old days only nobles and wealthy gentlemen really had power to enjoy their liberty. Under the new system the very poorest could secure the blessings of order. Yet England had to pay a heavy price for what she obtained from the Tudors. Before long the kings found out that they could do almost what they liked, and very soon they began to do things that were by no means good for the country. At first this result was not felt, for most of the Tudors, though high-handed and arbitrary, did what they thought was for the best, and remained popular because they were good Englishmen and very like their subjects, both in their virtues and in their vices. Later on, however, the English had to endure much from their kings. It was only after a hard struggle that the people were able to win back their liberty.

CHAPTER XXII

Henry VIII., 1509-1547

(Married (1) Catharine of Aragon; (2) Anne Boleyn; (3) Jane Seymour;
(4) Anne of Cleves; (5) Catharine Howard; (6) Catharine Parr)

Principal Persons :

Cardinal Wolsey; James IV., King of Scots; Louis XII. and Francis I.,
Kings of France; Ferdinand, King of Spain; Charles V., Emperor
and King of Spain; Pope Clement VII.; Cardinal Campeggio;
Martin Luther; Sir Thomas More; Bishop Fisher; Archbishop
Cranmer; Thomas Cromwell.

Principal Dates :

- 1509. Accession of Henry VIII.
- 1513. Battles of Flodden Field and the Spurs.
- 1517. Martin Luther begins the Reformation.
- 1520. Field of the Cloth of Gold.
- 1521. Henry's second War with France.
- 1529. Fall of Wolsey.
- 1534. Separation of England from Rome.
- 1535. Union of England and Wales.
- 1536. The Pilgrimage of Grace.
- 1536-9. Suppression of the monasteries.
- 1540. Fall of Cromwell.
- 1547. Death of Henry VIII.

1. Henry VIII. now became king at the age of eighteen. The tall, strong, handsome prince was a very different sort of man from his cold and cautious father. He loved display as much as Henry VII. had loved saving, and he soon scattered his father's treasure in giving magnificent feasts and entertainments. But with all his eagerness for

amusing himself, Henry VIII. worked hard at the government of his kingdom, being much fonder of



Henry VIII. (From a Painting by Holbein about 1536.)

power and of having his own way than of anything else in the world. He made himself popular by his

pleasant hearty manner, and by seeming to wish to do what the people themselves most wanted. But as time went on, Englishmen began to find out that the friendly and outspoken young king was selfish, cruel, and hard-hearted. As he grew old Henry became more and more brutal. But even at the last he still had something grand about him. If he was fierce like a lion, he had the courage and dignity of the king of beasts. He was one of the greatest of all our kings, and with all his faults did much good to England.

2. Henry carried on his father's policy of increasing the authority of the king and of making all men, however great, obey the law. But he was not content to go on with simply treading in Henry VII.'s footsteps. He wished to show that he was stronger and cleverer than his father. Henry desired to make it clear to Europe that England had again become a nation to be feared. His mind was filled with big schemes for extending his power, and he soon felt the need of a wise and prudent minister to help him. Such a minister he found in a young priest named *Thomas Wolsey*. The son of an Ipswich merchant, Wolsey went to the University of Oxford, where he took his degree so young that he was called 'the boy bachelor.' But he loved to get on in the world better than to remain at the university studying books. He soon found his way to court, where his ability, hard work, and desire to please attracted King Henry's fancy. Before long, Wolsey was made Lord Chancellor and Archbishop of York, and for nearly twenty years he was his master's most trusted servant. He was not in every way a good man, but he was certainly a great one. But many of the worst things he did were done by him simply to please his master. He was proud and haughty, and lived in a more

expensive way than even the greatest nobles. But he was merciful and just to the poor, and built magnificent schools and colleges, believing that it would be better for the land if there were more scholars and more learning in it.

3. Wolsey tried to win for England a stronger posi-



Cardinal Wolsey.

(From an Original Miniature belonging to the
Hon. Sir Spencer Ponsonby, G.C.B.)

tion in Europe. During the Wars of the Roses, England had ceased to exercise any influence on the Continent, and Henry VII. had not been able to do much to restore her position. Henry VIII.'s
foreign
policy.

However, he made a firm alliance with Spain, which his son, who had married the Spanish king's daughter, continued. The great rival of Spain in Europe was France, now ruled by Louis XII. In 1512 Henry joined his father-in-law in war against the French.

4. In the struggle which now followed, Henry won

some notable battles against both these enemies. One fight against the French was called the *Battle of the Spurs*, because it was said that the French used their spurs to make their horses run away from the English, much more than they used their swords. But the most bloody battle of that time was the battle of *Flodden Field*, in which the King of Scots, James IV., was slain with very many of his nobles. Though James was Henry VIII.'s brother-in-law, he broke from the English alliance established by his marriage, and renewed the traditional friendship between Scotland and France. So Henry had to fight the Scots as well as the French. But at Flodden the Scots were so badly beaten that it was long before they were strong enough to trouble Henry any more. Both these battles took place in the year 1513. Soon after peace was made.

5. Louis XII. soon died, and was succeeded by his brilliant cousin, Francis I., who reigned just as long as Henry himself. A little later, old Ferdinand of Spain died also. His place was taken by his grandson, Charles of Austria, who in 1519 became the Emperor Charles V. Charles ruled over the Netherlands and Austria as well as over Spain, and Francis I. was very jealous of him. The two princes were at once anxious to wage war one against the other, hoping thus to make it clear who was the first king in Europe.

6. Francis and Charles both sought Henry's alliance, and Henry strove for a time to hold a sort of balance between them. He held interviews with both. His meeting with Francis took place near Calais. It was conducted in such a stately fashion, and so much money was spent on it, that men called the place of meeting the *Field of the Cloth of Gold*. The picture on page 201 shows Henry setting forth in state to hold the interview in 1520.

Nothing having come of it, Henry made an alliance



The Embarkation of Henry VIII. from Dover, 1520.
(From the Original Painting at Hampton Court.)

with Charles, and in 1521 went to war against Francis,

but did not win much glory in the struggle. However, Charles finally defeated the French, and thus made himself the most powerful of European sovereigns.

7. Despite occasional triumphs, Henry did not get much good by his wars. He had hoped to be able to win famous victories, like those of Edward III. and Henry V. But his actual successes were much less than he expected. Moreover, he spent so much money on raising soldiers that he had to ask Parliament for heavy taxes. This the people did not like. Before long many accused Wolsey of wasting vast sums on useless wars, when it would have been much fairer to have blamed Henry himself. We should not, however, forget that Wolsey's foreign policy once more made England an important power in Europe. For a long time foreigners had almost forgotten that there was such a place as England. There was no longer any danger of our country being ignored. But in their efforts to make England play a great figure, neither Henry nor Wolsey thought much of the justice of their cause.

8. Soon after he came to the throne Henry married his brother Arthur's widow, *Catharine of Aragon*, and lived with her happily for about seven-teen years. But he then grew tired of her, and fell in love with a giddy, foolish court beauty named *Anne Boleyn*. He soon became eager to get Catharine divorced so that he might be free to marry Anne. He professed that his conscience pricked him for entering into a marriage that was against the law of the Church; and which had only been made lawful in his particular case by special leave having been granted him by one of the Popes. Now, however, he went to another Pope, *Clement VII.*, and asked him to declare that the former Pope had made a mistake in giving him permission to marry his brother's widow. This, however,

Wolsey
blamed for
Henry's
failures.

The divorce
of Catharine
of Aragon.

Clement VII. was afraid to do, though, as Henry was a very powerful king, he long pretended to be wishful to give him what he wanted. In order to gain time, Clement appointed Wolsey and an Italian Cardinal, named *Campeggio*, to try the case. This pleased Henry, who thought that Wolsey was sure to be on his side. But before the two Cardinals had made a decision.



Catharine of Aragon.

(From a Painting in the National Portrait Gallery.)

the Pope took away their power from them and ordered that the case should be tried all over again at Rome.

9. This made Henry very angry. In 1529 he attacked Wolsey for having helped the Pope to deceive him, and drove him from power. At first he allowed Wolsey to retire to York. But before long he accused him of being a traitor, and ordered him to go to London to be tried. It was the dead of

Fall of
Wolsey.

winter, and Wolsey was already an old man and broken in health. On his way he fell ill and was forced to stop his journey at Leicester. There, a few days later, he died. The last words he spoke were, 'Had I but served my God as faithfully as I have served my king, He would not have deserted me in my old age.'

10. Henry was still eager to procure the divorce. He saw that his only chance of getting the Pope to agree to it was by threatening him.
Beginning of the Reformation. The Pope's authority was no longer what it once had been. Since 1517 *Martin Luther* had been preaching in Germany that there was nothing about the power of the Pope in the Bible, and that there were many things in the Church that sadly wanted reforming. The movement thus started was called the *Reformation*, and soon had the result of breaking up Europe into different religious bodies. Those who remained faithful to the Pope and the old faith were called *Roman Catholics*. Those who followed Luther were called *Protestants*, because they protested against the Pope and his teaching. They soon became so numerous that most of northern Europe fell away altogether from obedience to the Pope. At the first outbreak of the Reformation, England and Henry remained true to the old faith. Henry actually wrote a book against Luther. This book so pleased the Pope that he ordered that the English kings should receive the title of *Defender of the Faith*. This name British kings and queens have kept ever since, and it still can be read on their coins.

11. When Henry pressed Clement VII. hard on the divorce question, it was pretty clear that
The breach between England and the Pope. the Pope and the king would soon cease to be good friends. As Clement continued to hold out, Henry called together a Parliament and

passed laws through it, which gradually took away all the power of the Pope in England. But the Pope was still as obstinate as ever, so that the great result of the divorce question was the separation of England from Rome. The most important of the Acts of Parliament which carried this out was the Act of Supremacy, passed in 1534, which declared that the king was *Supreme Head of the English Church*, and thus set up what was called the *Royal Supremacy*. Having thus decided that the Pope had no right to exercise authority in England, Henry persuaded the Archbishop of Canterbury, *Thomas Cranmer*, to grant his divorce. He then married Anne Boleyn. The ill-treated Catharine was forced to submit. She died soon after, protesting to the last that she was Henry's lawful wife.

12. Most Englishmen agreed with Henry in throwing off the Pope's power. But there were a few bold men who were daring enough to incur the king's wrath by refusing to change their faith at his bidding. Chief among these friends of the Pope was *Sir Thomas More*, a famous lawyer and writer, who had been made Lord Chancellor after Wolsey's fall, but had soon thrown up his office in disgust and gone back into private life. Up to this time Henry had professed to be a very great friend of More's. He not only sought his advice, but often paid him sudden visits to his house, where he would walk round the garden with his arm put lovingly round More's neck. But, even then, More did not trust him. 'If my head,' he said, 'would win for the king a castle in France, it would not fail to go.' But More, though he had been anxious to make the state of the Church better, saw how much there was that was good in the old ways. He was very glad, therefore, to be released from the king's service, and to live quietly with his family. But Henry

The Royal
Supremacy
and Sir
Thomas
More.

would not allow this, and grew wrathful that an old minister of his should venture to go against his will. He called upon More to take an oath that Anne Boleyn was lawful queen, and to deny that the Pope had any power in England. More knew that if he refused he would soon be a dead man, but he never hesitated as to what was right. He was at once shut



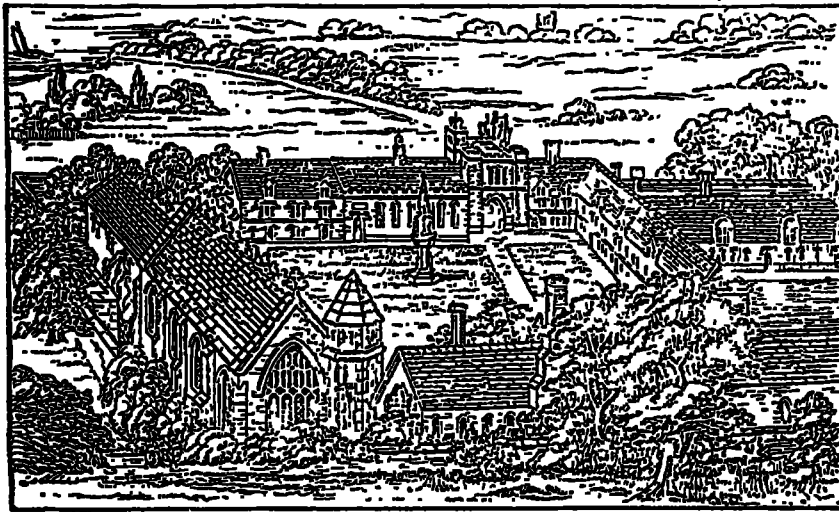
Sir Thomas More.

(From an Original Portrait painted by Holbein in 1527.)

up in the Tower, and soon condemned to death as a traitor. He went to his doom so calmly that he made jests on the scaffold. After he had laid his head upon the block, he shifted his position for a moment to put his beard out of the way of the headsman's axe. 'It is a pity,' he said, 'that it should be cut. It hath not committed treason.' Other good men followed his noble example of obeying their conscience rather than the king's will. The chief of these was *John Fisher*,

Bishop of Rochester, the best and most learned of all the English bishops. But Henry trampled on all opposition, so that before long no man dared deny that he was Supreme Head of the Church.

13. A still greater change soon followed. Since the beginnings of the Christian faith in England, a great many men and women had taken vows to give up the world for the sake of religion. ^{The} ~~monasteries.~~ They had joined together in little societies, in order to live far from the bustle and confusion of ordinary life. They had nothing of their own; they



Bermondsey Abbey.
(Showing the Monastic Buildings.)

were not allowed to marry, and they were bound to obey the abbot or abbess, as the chief of each house was called. They spent their time in prayer, almsgiving, meditation, and study. The buildings in which they lived were called *monasteries*, or *abbeys*, or houses of religion, and those who lived in them were called monks and nuns. We have seen how in the old days the best and holiest of men gladly entered the monasteries. and we have seen what good lives

these monks lived, and how much their example did to promote religion and learning in England.

14. By this time the spirit of the monks had become faint. A layman like More could live as holy:

The suppression of the monasteries.

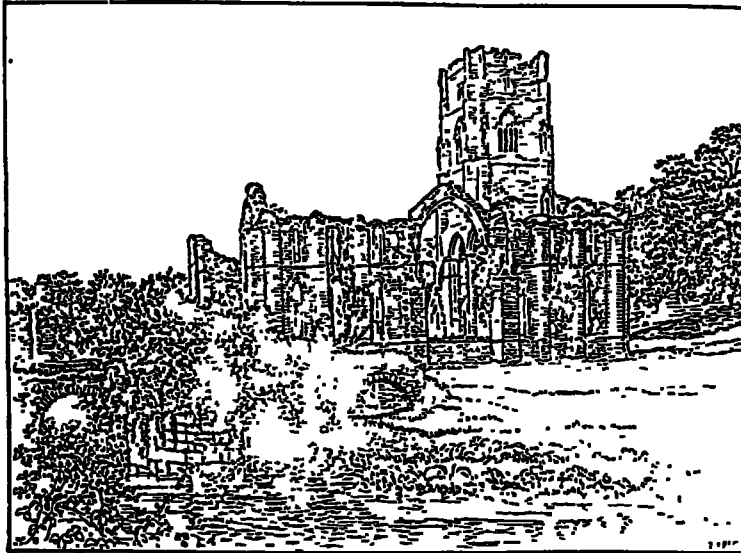
a life in the world as a monk in his monastery. Moreover, there were so many monasteries that there were not enough men of the right sort to fill them. The wealth of many abbeys had tempted the monks into luxury. Many were idle and careless, and some of them led wicked lives. Thus it was that the monasteries had lost popularity, while their lands tempted the greedy, and their weakness made them easy to attack. Henry was eager to get money, and it now struck him that it would be a fine plan to put an end to them all, and keep their lands for himself and his friends. He was always clever in finding good excuses for anything that he wanted to do. He now pretended that the monks were idle, corrupt, and useless, and that even the good ones were his enemies, as they were, as far as they dared, friends of the Pope and enemies of the Royal Supremacy. He now called to his help a greedy, cruel, self-seeking minister named *Thomas Cromwell*, an old dependant of Wolsey, who, after his master's fall, entered the king's service. With Cromwell's aid Henry abolished the monasteries altogether. The smaller houses went first in 1536, but the large ones suffered the same fate within the three following years.

15. The monks' vast estates now went to the king. But Henry kept very little for himself, selling much of

the land in a hurry at low prices, and giving a great deal away to his ministers and favourites, whom he was unable to reward

Results of the suppression. out of his own resources. Ruthless acts marked everywhere the destruction of the monasteries. The holy places, where the people had so long worshipped God,

were profaned. The abbey churches lay roofless and robbed of their rich ornaments. Perhaps some courtier built a fine new house for himself out of the ruins. Sometimes the abbey was pulled down to erect cottages or to mend roads. Sometimes it was left to gradually moulder away into those ruins, which still show us how beautiful the abbeys once were. We can see a good example of this in the picture here given of *Fountains Abbey*, near Ripon in Yorkshire, one of the

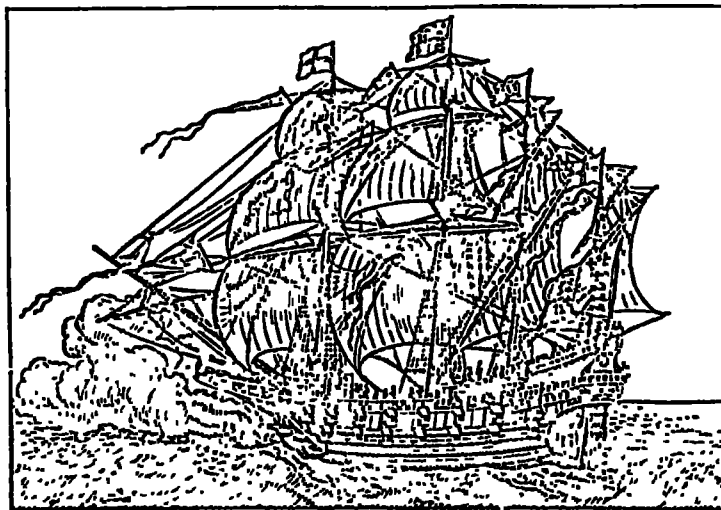


Fountains Abbey.
(Showing the East End of the Church.)

most famous and interesting ruins in England. However, about half of the monks' property was used for public purposes. Some was employed to increase the number of bishops, and some abbeys were kept to be cathedrals and parish churches. A good deal of money was also used to build fortifications to protect England from invasion, and fine new ships of war. The most famous of Henry's battle-ships was the *Great Harry*, the picture of which gives us a good idea of what the ships of the time were like. The flags floating at the mast are the St. George's Cross and the Royal Standard of England.

16. As much of the abbey spoils was spent on enriching Henry's friends as in promoting worthy objects. The results were by no means all for good. The monks had been very easy and indulgent to their tenants. But the new landlords of the abbey lands were, as a rule, greedier and harder than the monks had been. They raised rents and took away from the poor the use of

The
Pilgrimage
of Grace.



The Great Harry.

the *common lands*, on which everybody had been allowed to turn his cattle and sheep to graze. Before long, old-fashioned men lamented the fall of the abbey, and in 1536 the Yorkshire men even rose in revolt to bring the monks back. Their rising was called the *Pilgrimage of Grace*. But it was as foolish to withstand the tempest as to seek to change the will of the king. The rebellion was easily suppressed.

17. Cromwell now persuaded Henry to make other changes in religion, such as breaking down holy images, and reducing the number of holidays. But the most important thing now done was the publication of an *English translation of the Bible* by Cranmer. In 1538 the king

The English
Bible.

ordered that a copy of this Bible should stand open in every parish church, that any one who liked could read it. It was believed that this would make the people more open to receive the new teaching.

18. Henry was now drifting towards Luther and the Protestants, but he still professed to be a good Catholic who steered a middle way between Popery and the new faith, and hated Protestants as heretics. Besides hanging and cutting into quarters all those *Papists*, or friends of the Pope, who denied the Royal Supremacy, he sought out and burnt to death at the stake the followers of Luther. But under the influence of Cromwell and Cranmer, Henry was making bishops of men whom he would have burnt a few years before, and it looked as if he would soon become a regular Protestant.

The king's
middle way
in religion.

19. Hideous deeds within his own household now soured Henry's temper. He had soon grown tired of Anne Boleyn, and had ruthlessly cut off her head. The very day after her execution he married a third wife, *Jane Seymour*.

The fall of
Cromwell.

She was the mother of Edward, Henry's only son, and died soon after he was born. For some time Henry remained a widower, but Cromwell now persuaded him to marry a German princess, *Anne of Cleves*, whose kinsfolk were among Luther's chief supporters. Cromwell hoped thus to make friends with the German Protestants. But his plan proved his ruin. Anne of Cleves was so ugly and stupid that Henry divorced her at once. He accused Cromwell of treason, and in 1540 sent him to the scaffold. Like Wolsey, Cromwell had served Henry only too slavishly, and it was absurd to accuse him of being unfaithful to the king.

20. With Cromwell's fall Henry's itch for change died away. The king was now content with having

got rid of the Pope and the monks, and suffered the Church to go on with little further reformation for the rest of his life. His health was now broken, and his temper more fierce and brutal than ever. He still beheaded Papists and burnt Protestants. He still sent to the scaffold all whom he believed were plotting against him, and took no pains at all to prove that they had broken the law. He married two more wives after Anne of Cleves' divorce. The first of these, *Catharine Howard*, was soon beheaded like Anne Boleyn, but she had led so wicked a life that the king had some excuse. Henry's sixth wife was a lively young widow named *Catharine Parr*, who had the good luck to survive him. At last the king died in 1547, and after him came such a period of trouble that before long men longed to be ruled once more by the grim tyrant, who, with all his violence, had given England peace and strong rule.

21. Some other notable things happened in Henry VIII.'s time. The king was anxious to become supreme lord over all the British islands, and was the first sovereign after Edward I. to devote much pains to secure this object. He failed altogether to make England friendly with Scotland, since he could not resist plundering and devastating Scotland whenever he had the chance. The result was that the Scots remained in alliance with France and continued to uphold the Pope. Henry did something to make Ireland more peaceful and more closely connected with England. Dropping the old title of Lord of Ireland, he was the first English king who called himself King of Ireland. He broke down the power of the great Norman house of Fitzgerald and strove to win over the chief men, Normans and Irish alike, by sharing with them the spoils of the Irish monasteries. For a moment it seemed as if Henry had succeeded in making himself real master

of Ireland, but his children afterwards found that they had to do most of the work over again. But Henry's greatest success was with Wales, which since Edward I.'s time had been dependent on England, but without forming a part of it. In 1536 Henry united Wales, both the Principality and the Marches, with England, giving both countries equal laws and privileges. He divided the Marches of Wales (see map on p. 112) into counties, and added these to the older Welsh shires, set up in the Principality of Wales by Edward I. Thus the whole of Wales and the March was divided into thirteen counties exactly like those of England. Moreover, Henry VIII. gave these thirteen Welsh shires and the boroughs contained in them the privilege of sending members to the Parliament at London. At the same time he put an end to the special position which Cheshire had enjoyed as a Palatine county, since the Norman period, and which had made it, like Wales and its March, separate from the ordinary parts of England.

Union of
England and
Wales.

CHAPTER XXIII

Edward VI., 1547-1553

Principal Persons :

Edward Seymour, Duke of Somerset ; Mary Queen of Scots ; John Dudley, Duke of Northumberland ; Archbishop Cranmer ; Latimer, Bishop of Worcester ; Ridley, Bishop of London ; the Lady Jane Grey.

Principal Dates :

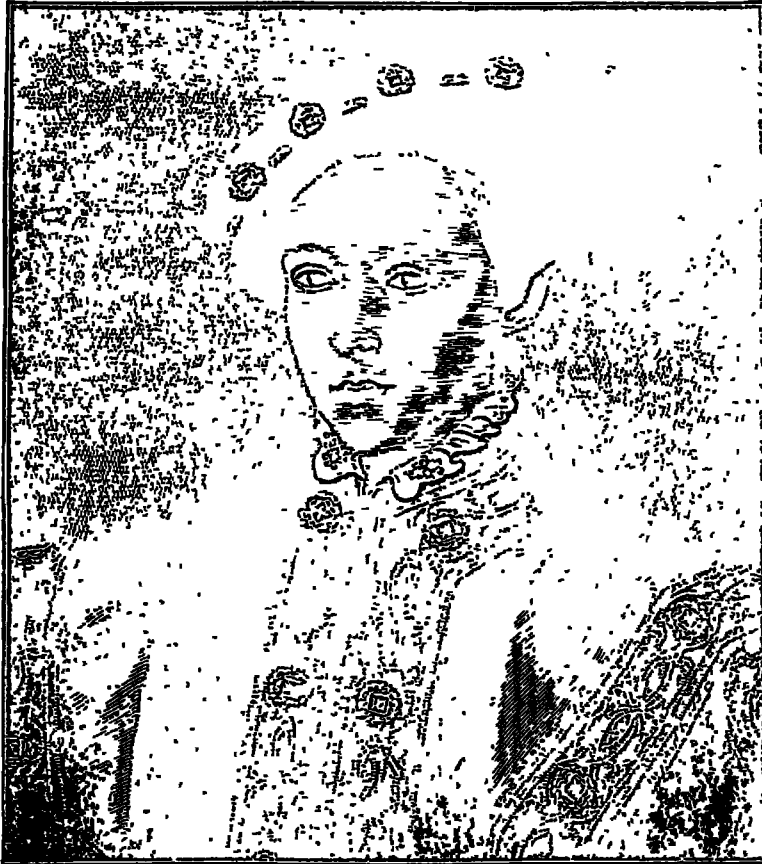
1547. Accession of Edward VI.
1547-1549. Protectorate of Somerset.
1549-1553. Rule of Northumberland.
1553. Death of Edward VI.

1. Edward VI., the only son of Henry VIII., was a boy of ten, so his mother's brother, *Edward Seymour*, Duke of Somerset, became Lord Protector. Somerset was well-meaning and active, but neither wise nor prudent. He tried to do too much at once, and as a result did nothing properly. He strove to carry on Henry VIII.'s policy of joining together England and Scotland. To effect this he wished to marry the young king to his cousin, *Mary Queen of Scots*, who had been a queen since she was a baby, and was the grand-daughter of James IV. and of Margaret Tudor. But he did not take the right way to effect this. He led an army into Scotland, won a victory at *Pinkie*, near Edinburgh, and burnt and pillaged all south-eastern Scotland. Angry at this rough wooing, the Scots sent their queen to France, where she was brought up to be a good Frenchwoman

The
Protector
Somerset
defeats the
Scots.

and Catholic, and where, when she grew up, she was married to the French king's eldest son. In consequence of this England and Scotland long remained bad friends.

2. Somerset thought that Henry VIII. had spared too



King Edward VI.

much of the old Church, and, following Cranmer's advice, desired to carry out further changes. He broke down the images of saints, and allowed the clergy to marry. But the most important thing he did was to put an end to the old fashion of saying the services of the Church in Latin. Instead of the Latin Mass, Somerset introduced an

Somerset
furthered the
Reformation.

English Book of Common Prayer in 1549. This is called the *First Prayer Book of Edward VI.* Most Englishmen were not prepared for so many novelties. They were the more angry at them since some of the reformers only used religion as a cloak to their greed. Many of the Council eagerly enriched themselves with the property of the Church. Though better than most of the Councillors, Somerset pulled down churches to build for himself a new house in the Strand in London. This was in the same place as the present *Somerset House*, though that was set up long afterwards.

3. In 1549 there were two rebellions. One was in *Devonshire*, where the people rose in revolt against the new English service, which they said was like a Christmas game. The other was in *Norfolk*, where the poor took arms against the landlords, who had robbed them of the common lands on which they used to turn their sheep. Somerset was too weak to deal properly with these rebellions. The Council drove him from the protectorate. Afterwards he was accused of treason, because he tried to get back power, and was beheaded.

4. *John Dudley, Earl of Warwick*, a fierce and pitiless soldier, who had put down the rebels with a strong hand, succeeded to Somerset's power. He made himself Duke of Northumberland, and pretended to be very anxious to reform the Church still farther. But he had no real zeal for Protestantism, and merely sought to get the Protestants on his side and despoil the Church. The extreme men said that Somerset's Prayer Book did not go far enough. To please them Northumberland issued what is called King Edward's *Second Prayer Book*, which is much more like the one used at present than the first Prayer Book. We must not think that all who favoured the new ways were self-seekers like North-

umberland. There were very pious and honourable men among them, such as the sturdy preacher *Hugh Latimer*, once Bishop of Worcester, and *John Ridley*, the scholarly Bishop of London.

5. Edward was a forward, serious-minded boy, very anxious to promote the Protestant cause. But he had wretched health, and died of consumption before he was sixteen. On his deathbed Northumberland persuaded him that the succession of his elder sister Mary, the daughter of Catharine of Aragon, would be dangerous to religion, and induced him to leave the throne to his Protestant cousin, *Lady Jane Grey*. Lady Jane was a good and pious girl, more fond of study than of amusing herself; but she was the wife of *Lord Guildford Dudley*, one of Northumberland's sons, and no one wished that, through her nominal rule, the greedy duke should remain in power. When Edward died, Northumberland proclaimed his daughter-in-law queen. But Jane only reigned ten days. Everybody saw that the Lady Mary had the better title, and Northumberland himself was forced to give up the struggle. Mary now became queen amidst universal rejoicing, and Northumberland was beheaded.

The death of Edward, and the attempt to make Lady Jane Grey queen.

CHAPTER XXIV

Mary, 1553-1558

(Married Philip II., King of Spain)

Principal Persons :

Charles V., the Emperor ; Philip II. of Spain ; Sir Thomas Wyatt ;
Cranmer ; Ridley ; and Latimer.

Principal Dates :

- 1553. Accession of Mary.
- 1556. Cranmer burnt.
- 1558. Loss of Calais ; death of Mary.

1. Mary, the daughter of Henry VIII. and Catharine of Aragon, had lived an unhappy and solitary life.

Character of Queen Mary. She was strongly in favour of the old religion, and hated the changes brought about by her father and brother. She was brave, energetic, strong-minded, and honourable, but weak health and misfortune had soured her temper and made her nervous and suspicious. Her zeal for her faith made her cruel against the Protestants, but in other ways she was less hard than either her father or her sister Elizabeth. She was the first woman who ever reigned over England.

2. Mary at once got rid of the religious changes made under Edward VI. She brought back the Latin Mass, forced the clergy to give up either their wives or their livings, and prevented all Protestant teaching. The result was that the state of religion became what it had been at the end of the reign of Henry VIII. Those who

refused to follow the queen's religion were put into prison or fled into exile. But most Englishmen were willing that the old customs should be brought back.



Queen Mary Tudor.

(From a Painting by Lucas de Heere, dated 1554,
belonging to the Society of Antiquaries.)

3. Mary also wished to make England and Spain as friendly as they had been before Henry VIII.'s religious

changes, to bring back the power of the Pope, and

to restore the monks and nuns. She found, Mary marries Philip of Spain. however, that many who approved of her

first acts were opposed to these desires.

But she had a strong will, and never flinched in carrying out what she thought was right. First of all she succeeded in making friends with her cousin, the *Emperor Charles V.*, the most powerful prince in Europe. Before long she married Charles's eldest son, Philip, who a little later became *Philip II.* of Spain. The match was not popular. There was a rebellion against it, headed by *Sir Thomas Wyatt*, but it was soon put down. The revolt frightened Mary into sterner courses. She cut off the head of Lady Jane Grey and her husband, whom up to now she had allowed to live on in prison. At one time the queen shut up her sister Elizabeth, Anne Boleyn's daughter, in the Tower. But Mary was not happy in the marriage that she had sacrificed so much to bring about. Philip wedded her simply to get England on his side in a war that he was carrying on against France. When he had obtained his purpose he neglected her, and made her very miserable.

4. Mary now persuaded her Parliament to pass a law reviving the power of the Pope in England, and to

The restoration of the Pope's authority. renew the law of Henry IV. by which heretics were to be burnt alive. She thus won all the things for which she had been

striving, save the re-establishment of the monasteries. She tried hard to bring back the monks, but her nobles were afraid that, if the abbey were restored, they might be forced to yield up the monastic lands that Henry VIII. had given them. They succeeded in preventing her carrying out her purpose. Indeed, they would not allow the Pope's authority to be acknowledged once more, until he had promised that he would not insist on the monks getting back their estates.

5. Mary now began to persecute those Protestants who refused to give up their faith. Many were thrown into prison, and during her short reign over three hundred Protestants were burnt at the stake for no other crime than their religion. Most of these were simple clergymen, tradesmen, and workmen, who gladly laid down their lives for their creed. Many touching stories have been told of their sufferings, and their death did more to win converts to the new faith than all the laws that Henry VIII. and Edward VI. had passed in its favour. In earlier days it had been the interest of many greedy men to pretend that they wanted to reform the Church. But all these self-seekers were now attending Mass and praying for the Pope. The true reformers now showed that Protestantism could inspire in its disciples the highest courage and self-sacrifice.

The Marian
martyrs.

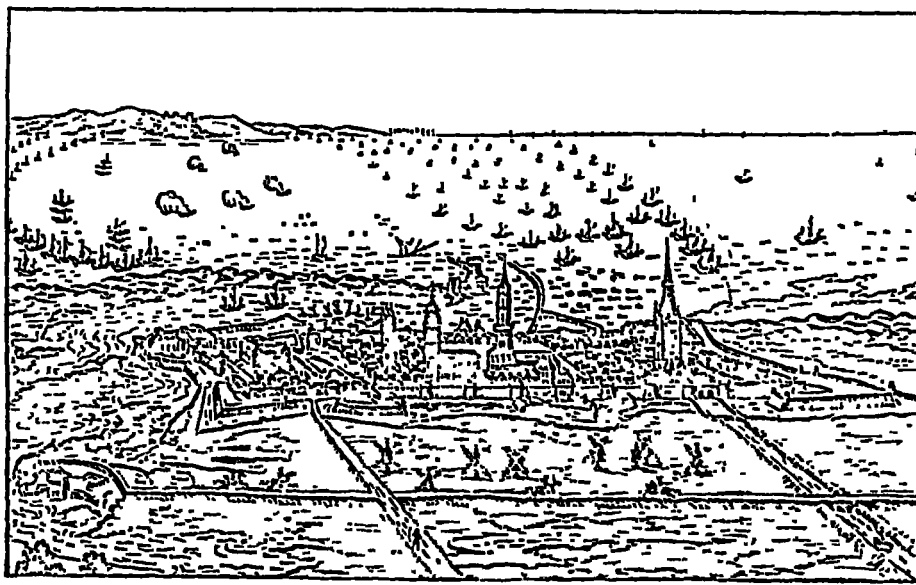
6. Conspicuous among the Protestant martyrs was Archbishop Cranmer. There is little to admire in his life, for he had always done what the king or the great lords told him, and his divorcing Mary's mother was but the first of a series of mean acts. But he was not so much a bad man as a weak scholar, without the courage or the strong will that makes a man great in action. Almost to the last he was timid. He tried to save his life by giving up his opinions. But his submission profited him nothing. Mary was resolved to be revenged upon the man who had divorced her mother, and ordered him to be executed. At the last moment Cranmer's better nature triumphed. He ended his life bravely, lamenting the weakness that had led him to renounce his faith, and declaring that he died a Protestant. As the flames were gathering around him, he thrust into the fire his right hand, with which he

The deaths
of Cranmer,
Ridley, and
Latimer.

had signed his recantation, saying, 'This hand hath offended.' Among the other witnesses to the Protestant faith were Hugh Latimer, the most lovable of the Protestant teachers, and Ridley, the learned Bishop of London. These two perished together at Oxford, where Cranmer also suffered. As the fire was being lighted, old Latimer cried to his companion, 'Be of good comfort, Master Ridley; we shall this day light such a candle, by God's grace, in England, as I trust shall never be put out.'

7. We must not blame Mary too harshly for these cruel deeds. In those days it was thought by everybody that it was the duty of the ruler to put heretics to death; and our notion that the best way to get at the truth is to allow every man to think and worship as he pleases, was

Mary's mis-
fortunes
and death.



Calais in the Sixteenth Century.

hardly known. But Mary herself was very wretched. She saw that, despite all her efforts, Protestantism was still a power. To please her husband she went to war with the French. In the course of it the

French swooped down suddenly on Calais and captured it. Mary brooded bitterly over this loss. 'When I die,' said she, 'you will find Calais graven upon my heart.' Her health broke down, and in 1558 she died, miserable and dispirited, knowing that her reign had been a failure, and that her sister Elizabeth would undo all her work as soon as she was in her tomb.

CHAPTER XXV

Elizabeth, 1558-1603

Principal Persons :

William Cecil, Lord Burghley; Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester; the Earl of Essex; Lord Mountjoy; Mary Queen of Scots; Francis II., King of France; Philip II. of Spain; John Calvin; John Knox; Henry Lord Darnley; the Earl of Bothwell; James VI., King of Scots; Anthony Babington; William, Prince of Orange; Sir Philip Sidney; Sir John Hawkins; Sir Francis Drake; Sir Walter Raleigh; Lord Howard of Effingham; William Shakespeare; Edmund Spenser; Richard Hooker; Francis Bacon.

Principal Dates :

- 1558. Accession of Elizabeth.
- 1561. Mary Stewart returns to Scotland.
- 1568. Mary Stewart escapes to England.
- 1569. Revolt of the Northern Catholics.
- 1570. The Pope excommunicates Elizabeth.
- 1572. The Revolt of the Dutch from Spain.
- 1577. Drake begins his voyage round the world.
- 1586. Babington's Plot.
- 1587. Execution of Mary Queen of Scots.
- 1588. Defeat of the Armada.
- 1601. Execution of Essex.
- 1603. Conquest of Ireland completed, and death of Elizabeth.

1. Elizabeth, the new queen, was a true daughter of Henry VIII. and Anne Boleyn. She was good-looking, robust, vigorous, and hard-working. She spoke several languages, and was proud of her skill in dancing, hunting, and riding. She could play the king as well as her father, and her genial manner won for her a warm place

in her subjects' hearts. She loved power so well that she made up her mind never to share her throne with a husband. Like Henry VIII., she was coarse and un-



Queen Elizabeth.

scrupulous, and she never hesitated to tell lies. She was careful and almost mean in most of her expenses, but she never minded spending money on her dresses, her amusements, and her favourites. She was vain

and selfish, and found it hard to make up her mind in little things, but in great matters she showed rare strength and firmness of purpose. She reigned over England for more than forty-five years, and all through this long period she always followed the same policy. This policy, moreover, was really her own, though she had much help from her faithful minister, *William Cecil, Lord Burghley*. She was the greatest of England's queens, though she was not a very good or attractive woman. She had wonderful courage, and never lost faith in England or in herself. Though she lived in trying times, her reign was a magnificent success.

2. The first thing was to settle the future of the Church. Elizabeth had seen how both Edward VI. and Mary had failed because each of them, though in different ways, took up too extreme a line. She made up her mind to go back, as far as she could, to the middle course of Henry VIII. With this object she persuaded Parliament to pass a new *Act of Supremacy*, which revived the headship of the Crown over the Church, and once more renounced the rule of the Pope. She looked on the Pope as a foreign prince, and did not see why a foreigner should have any power over England. But Elizabeth soon found a great difficulty in her way. Many of the old supporters of her father had been so much frightened at the excesses of Edward's reign that they had gone over to Mary's policy, and were therefore unwilling to uphold Elizabeth's supremacy over the Church. She was forced therefore to join hands with the Protestants, whose leaders, now back from exile, were anxious to carry out a thorough reform. To please these she restored the English Prayer Book of Edward VI., allowed the clergy once more to marry, and drew up the *Thirty-Nine Articles*, which were a list of the chief doctrines of the Protestants.

The
Elizabethan
settlement
of religion.

3. Elizabeth was careful not to go too far. Some of the exiles had lived when abroad at Geneva, where the great French Protestant, *John Calvin*, had set up a thoroughly reformed Protestant Church. On their return they wanted to make the Church of England like the Church of Geneva. They disliked bishops, set forms of prayer, elaborate ceremonies, and the wearing of a special dress by the clergy. They were called *Puritans* because they thought that they were making the Church more pure. At first they supported Elizabeth, thinking that she would, like Edward VI., bring about further changes. But Elizabeth soon let it be understood that the settlement she had made was not to be further tampered with. Then the Puritans began to grumble, and many of the Puritan clergy refused to conform to the ceremonies ordered by the Prayer Book.

The queen
and the
Puritans.

4. Elizabeth insisted that her subjects should go regularly to church, and that the services of the Church should be carried on in the way that she ordered. The Puritans were quite willing to attend church, but they wished to worship there after the Puritan fashion. This Elizabeth would not allow, and before long she drove out of their livings some of the Puritan clergy who had refused to wear surplices when reading prayers. Some of these ejected clergy formed congregations of their own. They were called *Separatists* because they separated from the Church, or *Independents*, because they taught that each individual congregation ought to be an independent church ruling itself. They were the first *Protestant Dissenters*. They were not, however, numerous, and were a good deal persecuted. Most of the Puritans remained in the Church, though they were very discontented.

The
Separatists
or Independents.

5. Elizabeth was much more hostile to the Roman

Catholics than to the Puritans. She turned out nearly all Mary's bishops and put Protestants in their places. She ordered all the Roman Catholics to attend the Protestant churches, and heavily fined those who refused. Such Catholics were called *Popish Recusants*, and bit by bit their lot became a very hard one.

6. Elizabeth had as much trouble abroad as at home. She soon ended the war with France even though she had to give up Calais to get peace. But after this England and France remained on very bad terms. Luckily, Philip of Spain was jealous of France, and for this reason he was obliged to support Elizabeth, though she had put down the Catholic worship in England, of which he was so zealous a champion. But he had no love for England, and only upheld Elizabeth because he was afraid of the French. There was always a danger lest France and Spain should join together against England. But fortunately this never happened.

7. The ill-will of France for England grew worse when a new king, *Francis II.*, arose, who had married *Mary Queen of Scots*. Mary claimed to be the lawful queen of England. This claim was dangerous not only because she was supported by her husband, but because the Catholics looked upon Elizabeth as having no right to rule England, since her mother, Anne Boleyn, had married Henry VIII. during Catharine of Aragon's lifetime, and the Pope held that Catharine, and Catharine only, had been Henry's lawful wife.

8. While Mary was in France great changes took place in Scotland. The Scots, who had hitherto been Catholics, now suddenly became eager and extreme Protestants. Led by the famous preacher, *John Knox*, the Scots threw off

the rule of the Pope and the bishops. By John Knox's advice the Scots set up a Protestant Church which exactly copied the fashion of the Church at Geneva.



Mary Queen of Scots.

(After the Picture by P. Oudrey in the National Portrait Gallery.)

This Church was called *Presbyterian* because it was governed by little councils of *presbyters* or elders, who took the place of the bishops of the old Church.

The Church of Scotland was thus made just what the English Puritans wanted to make the Church of England. Moreover, the Scots paid no attention to the efforts of their queen to prevent their becoming Protestants. They became now such hot Protestants that they could not remain allies of the Catholic French. A common religion now began to bind together the English and the Scots, who, ever since the days of Edward I., had been bitter enemies.

9. Soon after this the French king, Mary's husband, died. Mary was clever, ambitious, and energetic, as

Mary returns to Scotland. well as very beautiful and charming. She did not care to go on living in France after she had ceased to be the first lady in the

country. So in 1561 she went home to Scotland, though she was a keen Roman Catholic and most Scots hated her religion. She told them that if they would let her follow her faith, she was quite willing that they should follow theirs. Before long, however, Mary found that it was hopeless for her to get much power over her Protestant subjects. She therefore turned her eyes to England, where the Romanists were stronger. If the Catholics could prevail in England, they would probably depose Elizabeth and make Mary queen. In any case, if Elizabeth died, Mary was the next heir of Henry VII., being his great-granddaughter through Margaret, wife of James IV.

10. For the first few years that she lived in Scotland Mary acted very prudently. But after that she fell

Deposition of Mary. into serious trouble. She had married as her second husband her cousin, *Henry*

Lord Darnley, a foolish and jealous young man, but soon got to hate him very bitterly. She fell under the influence of a fierce Border chieftain named the *Earl of Bothwell*. Before long Scotland was horrified to learn that the house in which Darnley had been sleeping had been blown up with gunpowder,

and that Darnley's dead body had been found in the garden. It was believed everywhere that Bothwell had murdered Darnley, and that Mary well knew what he was doing. Soon afterwards Mary married Bothwell, and so suspicion was converted into certainty. The Scots were so disgusted that they dethroned her and set up as king her son, *James VI.*, a baby only a few months old. Mary was imprisoned in *Lochleven Castle*, a lonely fortress situated on a little island in the midst of a lake called Lochleven, in Kinross-shire. But in 1568 she managed to escape, and soon rallied her friends round her. However, she was beaten in battle, and was forced to flee to England.

11. Elizabeth was puzzled what to do with Mary. She could not restore her to her throne, because she neither wanted to make her powerful nor to offend the Protestant nobles who governed Scotland in the name of the little Mary's flight to England. *James VI.* She therefore resolved to keep Mary in England in an honourable captivity. But Mary was dangerous to Elizabeth even in her prison. In 1569, the year after her arrival, the Roman Catholic lords in the North of England rose in revolt against Elizabeth, and strove to put Mary on the throne. Elizabeth suppressed the rebellion with some difficulty.

12. In 1570 the Pope declared that, as Elizabeth was a heretic, she had no right to reign. The result of this action was that no one could be both a good friend of the Pope and a good subject of Elizabeth. Catholic conspiracies against Elizabeth. Forbidden to obey Elizabeth as their queen, the more active of the English Roman Catholics began to weave plots against her and in favour of Mary. Philip of Spain, who was now becoming unfriendly to Elizabeth, gave them help. The danger to Elizabeth soon became very grave. She had treated the Roman Catholics so badly

that we cannot be much surprised that some of them should do all that they could to drive her from the throne. Indeed, we should rather wonder that all the Catholics did not join these conspiracies. But many of them never forgot that they were Englishmen as well as Catholics, and despite all the Pope could say, remained loyal to Elizabeth. But it was an age of the fiercest religious bigotry. Some Catholics, who in other ways were quite good men, thought it was their religious duty to join in rebellions, and even in conspiracies to murder the queen. Nor were they alone in this. In other countries, as, for example, France, there were Protestant fanatics as willing to murder Catholics as some of the Catholic zealots in England were eager to slay Elizabeth.

13. The Romanists in England were not the only danger. Most of the great sovereigns of Europe were Roman Catholics, and they were always looking out for a chance to help their English brethren in the faith. But the greatest new trouble to the queen came from a swarm of missionary priests, mostly Englishmen, who, being educated abroad in the Catholic faith, came back to England to quicken the zeal of the old Catholics, and to make what converts they could among the Protestants. These were men of great earnestness and devotion, who carried their lives in their hands. Some of them were called the *seminary priests*, because they were brought up in *seminaries*, or theological colleges, set up for the education of the Roman clergy on the Continent. A few of the cleverest were called *Jesuits*, because they were the members of a new order of priests called the Jesuit Order, recently established to win back heretics to the Catholic faith.

14. Elizabeth was afraid of these zealots. Parliament passed cruel laws which made it easy to put

them to death as traitors, and before long many devoted missionaries were sent to the scaffold. Before Elizabeth died nearly as many Roman Catholic priests were hanged as traitors as there had been Protestants burnt as heretics in the days of Mary. Some of those who suffered were high-souled enthusiasts, who were quite as much martyrs for their religion as any of Mary's victims. But others were political intriguers, who fomented every plot against the queen, and it is only fair to remember this when we blame Elizabeth as a religious persecutor. In truth, it was a life-and-death struggle between the old and the new faiths, and the champions of both sides were very unscrupulous as to the weapons they used to defeat their foes.

Elizabeth
persecutes
the Roman
Catholics.

15. Plot after plot was formed to release Mary of Scotland and to slay Elizabeth. Fortunately they were all discovered, but they created the greatest alarm among English Protestants. At last a conspiracy was detected, of which the chief actor was a foolish youth named *Anthony Babington*. It was not hard to find out Babington's plans, since he was always boasting of the great things he was going to do. He was soon arrested and put to death. But letters were found written by Mary, in which she warmly approved of Babington's design to murder the queen. This gave Elizabeth her chance. Mary was taken to *Fotheringhay Castle*, in Northamptonshire, and tried as an accomplice in an attempt to slay Elizabeth. Mary declared that as a crowned queen she could not be tried in any English court. But her plea was overruled, and she was condemned to death. For a long time Elizabeth was afraid to execute the sentence. But at last she signed the death-warrant, and early in 1587 Mary was beheaded in the great hall of *Fotheringhay Castle*. She died

The
Babington
conspiracy
and the
execution
of Mary
Queen of
Scots.

with the courage and dignity that had never deserted her. With her death Elizabeth's worst dangers passed away. There was no longer any reason for making plots to slay her, for if they had succeeded, the next heir now was James of Scotland, who was a Protestant. The Catholics looked upon Mary as a martyr, forgetting her hardness and selfishness, and only remembering her sufferings and devotion to her faith.

16. During the years of Mary's imprisonment England and Spain were gradually drifting into war. But Philip was so afraid of the French joining the English against him that he put up with almost any insults from the English rather than formally make war on them. The result was a curious state of things. England and Spain remained at peace so far as the name went. Yet each tried hard to do the other as much harm as it could. Spain aided the conspirators against Elizabeth. The queen answered by helping the rebels against Philip. And she had a very good chance of doing this, since in 1572 Holland and the other northern states of the Netherlands rose in revolt against Philip, their ruler. For a long time Philip had sought to stamp out Protestantism among the Dutch, but they were so stubborn and strenuous that he could never succeed. At last they threw off his yoke, set up a Protestant Dutch Republic, and called on all Protestant Europe to help them to secure their freedom. The head of the Dutch was *William, Prince of Orange*, great-grandfather of the William of Orange who, more than a hundred years after this, became our King William III. At last he was murdered by a Catholic enthusiast, and it looked as if the Dutch would be beaten after all.

17. In 1586 Elizabeth sent soldiers to help the Dutch. At their head she put *Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester*, the son of the Duke of Northumberland, whom Mary

Tudor had put to death. He was a great favourite of Elizabeth, who would probably have married him if she had not resolved to keep single. But he was not wise or prudent enough for such a hard post as the command of the army in the Netherlands. However, he did something to assist the Dutch. In one of the battles which he fought, his nephew, *Sir Philip Sidney*, was slain. Sidney, though still quite a young man, was looked upon as the pattern of a chivalrous English gentleman. He had written beautiful sonnets and romances, had fought bravely, and had made himself much loved by troops of friends. It is said that when he lay wounded on the field some one brought him a drink of water. But Sidney saw a private soldier lying near who was suffering more than himself. He bade the water be given to the soldier, saying to him, 'Thy necessity is greater than mine.'

Leicester and
Philip Sidney
in the
Netherlands.

18. The English and Spanish were also fighting a great deal at sea. When Henry VII. had been King of England, *Christopher Columbus* had discovered *America*, and the Spaniards, in whose pay Columbus had been, conquered a great deal of this new world for themselves. Up to this time the English took very little concern about the sea or about trade. They were an easy-going, stay-at-home people, fond of plentiful living and hard fighting, but quite indifferent to adventure and discovery, and so careless of making money that up to Tudor times nearly all the foreign trade of the country had been in the hands of Netherlands, Germans, and Italians. But the Reformation had already begun to stir up the sluggish English. Even under Henry VIII., who, we must remember, did a great deal for the English navy, there was a new spirit of adventure and enterprise abroad. Under Elizabeth the new spirit grew. English sailors

The struggle
between
England
and Spain
on the
ocean.

now began to appear in distant seas, eager for adventure, profit, and renown. They found an admirable opportunity of winning all these things in the vast and badly ruled Spanish possessions in America. Philip forbade all but Spaniards trading with Spanish colonies. But English ships now came with cheaper and better goods than the Spaniards had to sell, and, despite the law, the colonists willingly bought of the English the commodities which they lacked.

19. The chief want of the Spanish colonists was that of labourers to till the soil and work the mines. A shrewd, hard-hearted but brave English captain, *Sir John Hawkins*, kidnapped negroes in Africa, and sold them at high prices to the Spanish planters. This was the beginning of the *slave-trade* between Africa and America, and of negro slavery in America. In those days, however, neither English nor Spaniards paid any thought to the sufferings of the wretched blacks. It was looked upon as a very profitable and useful trade, and Hawkins soon made a fortune by it. Philip became very angry with the English for breaking his laws against foreigners trading with his American subjects. But the Englishmen would not be put down, and began to fight for what they thought were their rights. Before long they found that an easy way of getting rich was by robbing the Spanish towns in America, or by stopping the great Spanish trading ships and seizing the cargoes of gold and silver which they were carrying over the Atlantic to Spain. Many of the English sailors were zealous Protestants, and believed that they were doing God's work in robbing and slaying the Papist Spaniards. The Spaniards retaliated when they could. If they managed to capture an English ship, they kept the sailors prisoners, and sometimes tortured or burnt them as heretics.

Panama, and climbing up a lofty hill, looked down on the Pacific Ocean, whose waters no Englishman had previously so much as seen. He resolved that he would some day sail a ship on that strange sea, and some years later was able to redeem his vow. In 1577 he took sail from Plymouth with a fleet of five small ships. With these he sailed to South America. But tempests and misfortunes lessened the numbers of his squadron, and only his own vessel, the little *Pelican*, managed to penetrate the stormy Straits of Magellan and reach the open waters of the Pacific. There he plundered the Spaniards as much as he chose, and filled his ship with a precious cargo. At last he sailed westwards through the Pacific, doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and in 1580, after three years' absence, came back safe and sound to England. He was the first captain who came back from a voyage round the world, and the *Pelican* the first English ship that made that voyage. Elizabeth visited the famous ship, and made Drake a knight.

21. Another famous Devonshire adventurer was Sir *Walter Raleigh*, who introduced the potato and tobacco from America to Europe, and strove to set up a colony in North America which he called *Virginia* in honour of Elizabeth, the Virgin Queen. But his colonists died or were slain by the Indians. It was not until after Elizabeth's death that an English colony was established in America.

22. Philip of Spain could not endure for ever the insults which the English were heaping upon him.

Drake at Cadiz. Soon after the death of Mary Queen of Scots, he went to war against England. He fitted out a vast fleet with which he hoped to conquer the islanders. But Drake was too quick for him. In 1587 Drake sailed right into *Cadiz* harbour, where the Spanish fleet was being prepared. He sank

or burnt a great many ships, and ruined the Spanish fleet for the time. He called this exploit singeing the King of Spain's beard.

23. In 1588 Philip got ready another fleet. It



Sir Walter Raleigh.

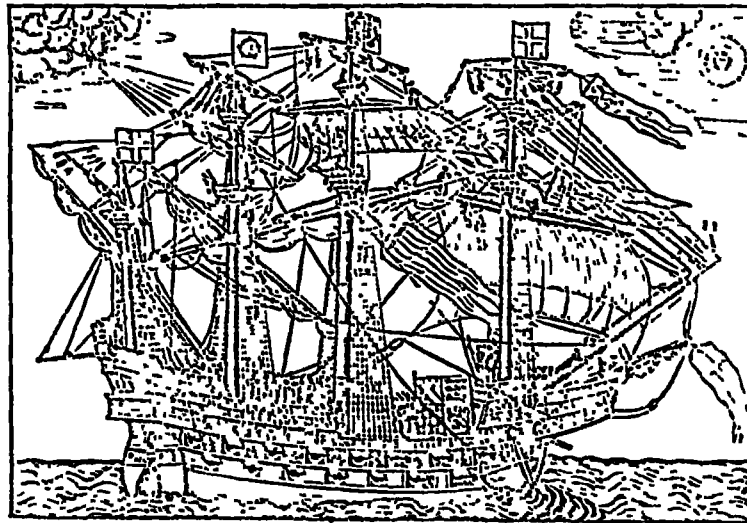
(After the Picture by F. Zuccherò in the National Portrait Gallery.)

was so strong that some of the Spaniards thought that it was impossible to conquer it, and called it the *Invincible Armada*. But the English sailors had beaten the Spaniards so often that they were not afraid of them now. They knew that the Spanish ships, though seeming very big, were generally slow sailers and unwieldy. The Spanish ships were, moreover, crammed with soldiers, who were to form an army to invade and

The Spanish
Armada.

conquer England. The notion was to get to England as soon as possible and land the troops there. There were in those days no regular soldiers in England, while the Spanish army was the bravest and the most famous in the world. But every good Englishman now took up arms for the defence of his country. Catholics as well as Protestants joined the queen's army, and Elizabeth herself inspired the raw levies with something of her faith and courage. Knowing that they were stronger on sea than on land, the English wished to do most of the fighting on the water. But supposing that the Spaniards had managed to effect a landing, they were likely to meet a fierce and obstinate resistance.

24. The English navy was prepared, and many armed



The Ark Royal.

merchant-ships added to the scanty numbers of the royal marine. *Lord Howard of Effingham* was made commander-in-chief. His flagship was called the *Ark Royal*. It was the biggest and finest ship of the royal navy in those days, and armed with many powerful cannon. By

The Armada
in the
Channel.

comparing our picture of it with the print of the *Great Harry* (see p. 210), we shall see to what extent the art of ship-building had progressed in England since the days of Henry VIII. Lord Howard was shrewd and competent, though hardly a great sailor. Under him, however, were experienced sea-dogs, like Drake and Hawkins, and the admiral was wise enough to follow their advice. It was not until the end of July 1588 that the Armada was sighted in the Channel. Lord Howard's fleet was at Plymouth. It let the Spaniards pass by, and then sailed out of port and hovered in their rear. The Spaniards sailed slowly up the Channel in the form of a huge half-moon. The English in looser order cut off their stragglers, attacked their rearguard, and when assailed in their turn, easily escaped from the enemy by reason of their superior seamanship. The result was that the Spaniards lost very heavily, and were glad to cast anchor off Calais and rest.

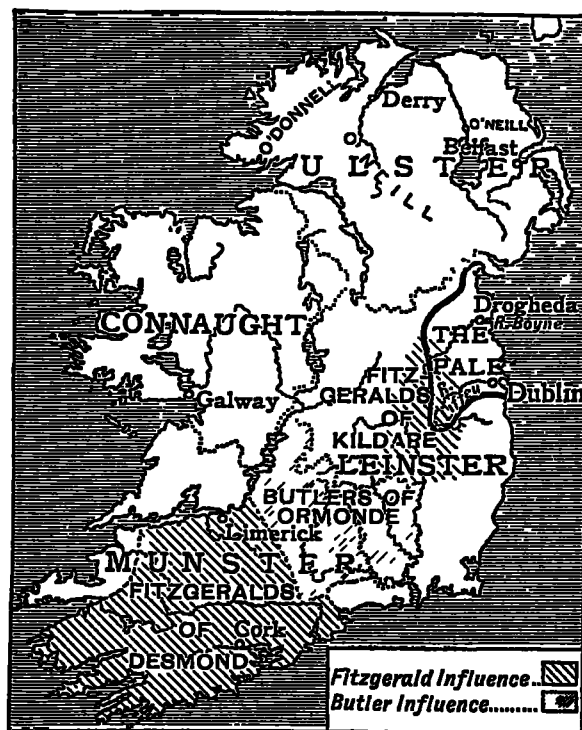
25. The English now set on fire some of their slowest and worst vessels, and a strong wind drove these blazing fire-ships among the closely packed Spaniards at anchor. Fearful of catching fire, the Spanish fleet cut their cables and again took to the sea. A little later they were forced to fight a pitched battle with the English fleet. In this they were so badly beaten that they could not even retreat the way they had come. In despair they sailed northwards, hoping to reach home by doubling the north of Scotland and then turning south. But tempests now completed the work of the English sailors. The west coasts of Scotland and Ireland were strewn with Spanish wrecks, and but few ships got home safely. In commemoration of her victory Elizabeth caused a medal to be struck on which was written, 'God blew with His winds and they were scattered.'

Defeat of the
Armada.

26. The failure of the Armada made Elizabeth's throne quite secure. It saved English Protestantism, and made certain the success of the Dutch in their long struggle for liberty against Spain. It made England as famous as she had been in the days of Crecy and Agincourt. And this time she was in glory in a better cause. But Philip was stubborn, and made many efforts to undo his defeat. There was war between England and Spain for fifteen years more. But as time went on the Spaniards found out the English fashion of fighting, and the later expeditions of Elizabeth were by no means so successful as her earlier ones. Finally, the war grew slack, and many believed that the time to make peace was come. But the friends of fighting carried the day, and there was no peace so long as the old queen lived.

27. One of the great events of the end of the reign of Elizabeth was the conquest of Ireland by the English. During the later Middle Ages, Ireland had been practically independent. There was an English Government at Dublin, but its power did not extend very far. The only district that recognised it was what was called the *Pale*. Most of Ireland was ruled by the chiefs of the native Irish clans, such as the *O'Neills* of Eastern and Central Ulster, and the *O'Donnells* of Donegal. The rest was governed by the descendants of the feudal lords who had conquered Ireland in the days of Henry II. The foremost of these Norman houses was that of *Fitzgerald*, whose heads were the Earls of *Kildare* and the Earls of *Desmond*. Next to this mighty family came the *Butlers*, whose head was Earl of *Ormond*, and whose lands lay between those of the two branches of the house of *Fitzgerald*. The Wars of the Roses reduced the English power to a very low ebb, and under Henry VII. every pretender

had found a welcome there. Henry VIII. began, as we saw, the increase of the English power. He gave up the title of Lord of Ireland, which earlier kings had borne, and called himself King of Ireland. Elizabeth now trod in her father's footsteps. She put down several Irish risings with great cruelty, and sent Englishmen to settle in Ireland so that they might help her Government in keeping the country



Ireland under the Tudors.

quiet. But there were great difficulties in her way. In particular, the Irish would not listen to the English preachers of Protestantism. In their hatred of England the Irish became more strenuous Roman Catholics than they had ever been before, and for a long time got much help from Philip of Spain. Towards the end of Elizabeth's reign there was another formidable

Irish rebellion. Clans like the O'Neills and the O'Donnells joined hands with their old enemies, such as the Fitzgeralds and the other Norman houses. Things were made worse by the incompetence of the English leader. This was the *Earl of Essex*, the chief favourite of Elizabeth's old age, and a vain and rash youth, who made such bad blunders that he had to be recalled. He lost the queen's favour and planned a mad conspiracy to win it back again. His plot failed, and in 1601 he was beheaded as a traitor. A stronger general, *Lord Mountjoy*, carried out the work that he had failed in. The Irish rebellion at last was put down about the same time that Elizabeth died. But the Irish hated the English, and were only kept obedient by main force,

28. England had beaten the Spaniards, conquered the Irish, and was the chief Protestant power in

Glories of
the end of
Elizabeth's
reign.

Europe. Her ships were swarming in every sea. Her trade was growing, and her prosperity was wonderful. She became so much more wealthy that every class of the com-

munity was able to live more comfortable and luxurious lives. The nobles built for themselves gorgeous palaces, such as the magnificent house of William Cecil at Burghley, near Stamford, or Hatfield House, in Hertfordshire, figured on page 248, a mansion erected by his

son, Robert Cecil, Earl of Salisbury, a few

Architecture.

years later, which is still the home of his descendant, the Marquis of Salisbury, the first Prime Minister of Edward VII. The style chosen for these houses was not exactly the Gothic style, after which buildings had been fashioned ever since Henry III.'s time, but which began to die out after the Reformation. Much in them was still Gothic, but this was curiously combined with details suggested by the Italian classic buildings of the time. This mixed style is called *Elizabethan* or *Jacobean*, and there are few parts of

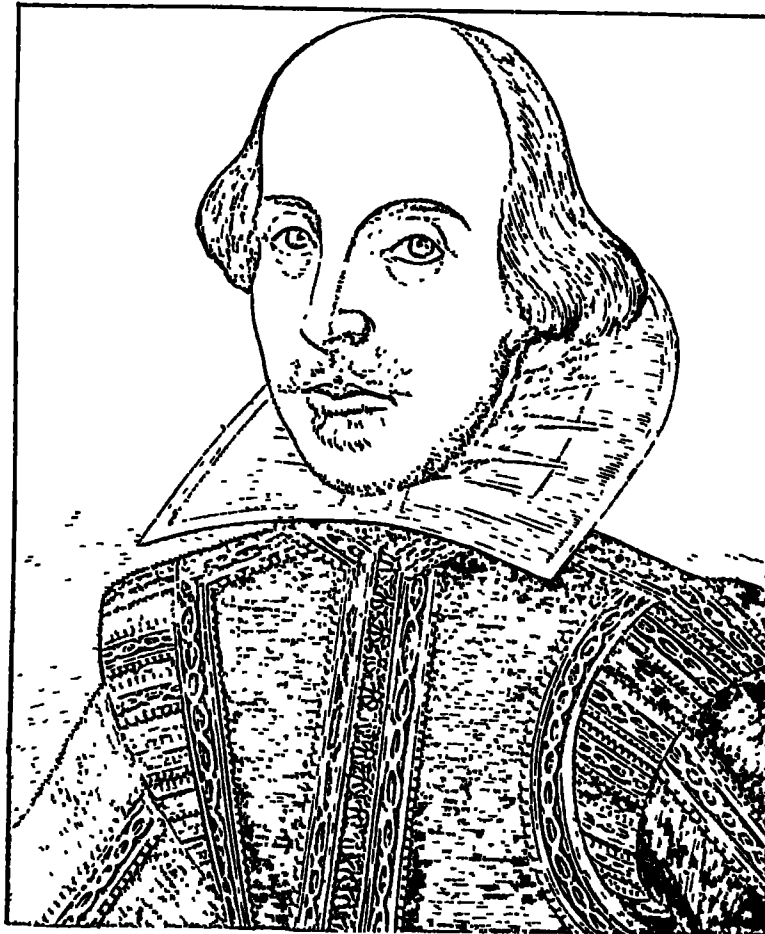
the land where we cannot see stately and magnificent country-houses built in this fashion. But the improvements were perhaps still greater in the dwellings and habits of the ordinary people of the middle classes. Before this time a chimney, a pillow, a glass window, had been the rare luxury of the rich ;



William Cecil, Lord Burghley, K.G., 1520-1591.
(From a Painting in the Bodleian Library, Oxford.)

but now the poor man had a chimney to carry off the smoke, a pillow to rest his head upon, glass windows, and better food and raiment. There had always been a rude plenty. Luxury and Comfort. Even in the old days it had been noted that 'though the English have their houses built of sticks and dirt, they fare like kings.' But a more

elegant and refined way of living now set in. People used forks to eat their food with instead of carrying it to their mouths with their fingers. Carpets came in instead of the straw or rushes that had hitherto covered the floor of even great men's houses. Instead of travelling on horse-
Travel. back, as everybody had done in earlier times, great lords and ladies had splendid coaches

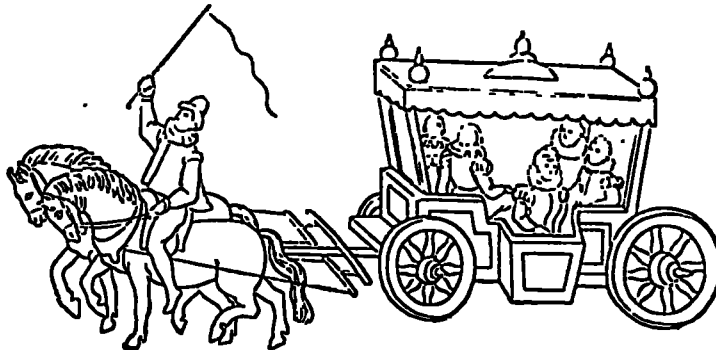


William Shakespeare.
(From the Droeshout Portrait.)

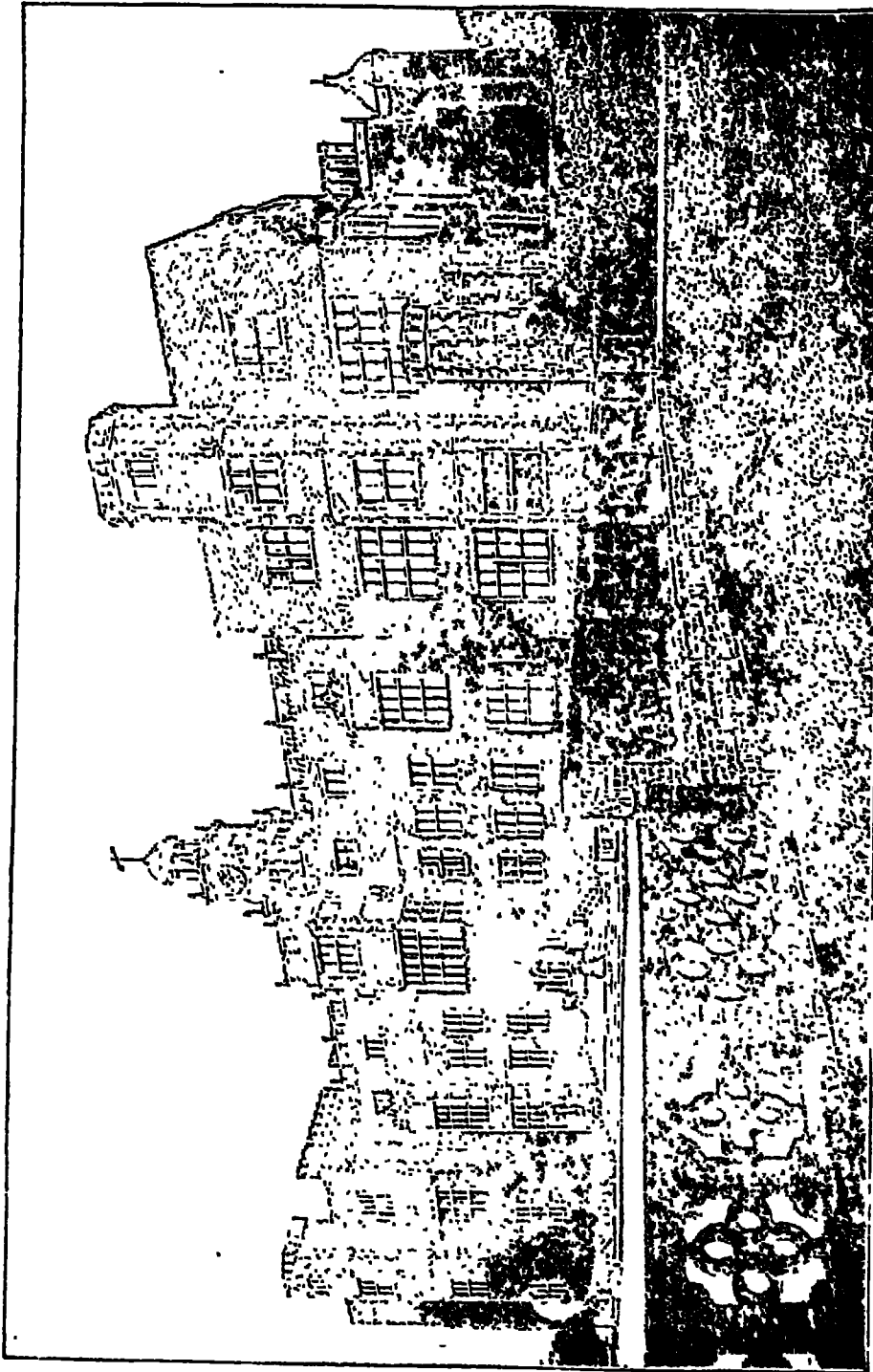
constructed for them, to enable them to get about with more comfort and less fatigue. But, as our picture shows us, the coaches of Elizabeth's days

were very cumbrous and heavy, and we should probably not have regarded them as very comfortable, especially on the bad roads of those days.

29. It was not only in such ways as these that England became an easier and happier place to live in. Men were more active and enterprising than they had been. They were also more thoughtful, more interested in knowledge and learning. It was the time of a great literature. There were a large num- Elizabethan literature.
ber of writers of wonderful plays, full of the energy, the restlessness, the power and genius of the age. It was the time of *William Shakespeare*, the greatest play-writer that ever lived; of *Edmund Spenser*, the eloquent poet of triumphant Protestantism; of *Richard Hooker*, the grave and wise defender of the English Church; and of *Francis Bacon*, the most judicious of essayists and the boldest of philosophers. All these things have made what have been called the 'spacious days of great Elizabeth' a period in his history of which every Englishman should still be proud. And the splendour of the age was still at its highest when, in 1603, Elizabeth ended her long reign.

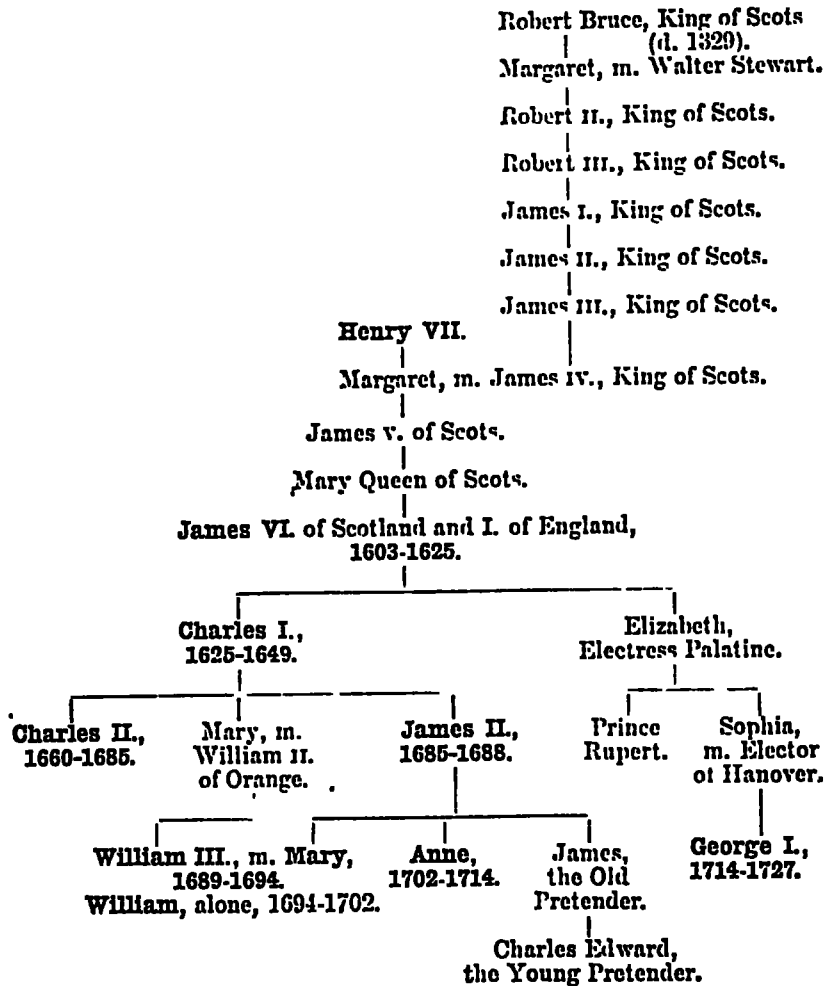


A Coach in the Reign of Elizabeth.



North-west View of Hatfield House, Hert's.
(Built for Robert Cecil, first Earl of Salisbury, between 1605 and 1611.)

GENEALOGY OF THE STEWART KINGS IN SCOTLAND AND ENGLAND.



BOOK VI

THE HOUSE OF STEWART, 1603-1714

CHAPTER XXVI

James I., 1603-1625
(Married Anne of Denmark)

Principal Persons :

Robert Cecil, Earl of Salisbury ; Robert Carr ; George Villiers,
Duke of Buckingham ; Lord Chancellor Bacon ; Guy Fawkes ;
Charles, Prince of Wales ; Elizabeth, Electress Palatine ; Sir
Walter Raleigh.

Principal Dates :

- 1603. Accession of James I.
- 1605. Gunpowder Plot.
- 1607. Foundation of Virginia.
- 1614. The Addled Parliament.
- 1616. Beginning of the Thirty Years' War. Execution of Raleigh.
- 1620. Landing of Pilgrim Fathers.
- 1621. Fall of Biron.
- 1623. Charles's voyage to Madrid.
- 1625. Death of James I.

1. James Stewart, the son of Mary Queen of Scots, and the great-great-grandson of Henry VII., began the line of Stewart kings in England. The change from one house of kings to another is not a great thing in itself. But it was soon clear that things had altered very much when James I. succeeded Elizabeth. It was for one thing very important that England and Scotland were now ruled by the same king. James had been



King James I.

(From a Painting by P. van Somer, dated 1621, in the National Portrait Gallery.)

James VI. of Scotland from the time he was a few months old. After he had been proclaimed King of England, he took upon himself the title of King of Great Britain. This was but a first step towards further projects. Not content with the union of the crowns, James also wanted to unite the laws, Church, and Parliament of the two countries. But neither the English nor the Scots liked this, and it took a hundred years before a fuller union was brought about. And at the moment of James's accession the conquest of Ireland was completed. Thus James was no mere King of England, but king over all the three kingdoms. However, the union of the kingdoms was not as yet very thorough. The Irish in particular were bitterly hostile to the English. Hoping to make Ireland more like England, James established in Ulster, hitherto the wildest and most independent part of Ireland, colonies of English and Scottish Protestants. This was the famous *Plantation of Ulster*, which resulted in the setting up of a Protestant and English district, which still endures in the north-east of Ireland.

2. New Englands began to spring up beyond the ocean. Attempts at colonies under Elizabeth had failed. But while James was on the throne several English colonies were set up in the east of North America. The first of these was *Virginia*. This land had already been given its name by Raleigh. It was in 1607 permanently settled by the English. Even earlier than this a few Englishmen occupied the little island of *Barbados* in the West Indies. Both Virginia and Barbados had warm climates, and their chief crops were tobacco in Virginia and sugar in Barbados. Finding it hard to get white men to work in the sugar or tobacco fields, the planters gradually fell back on negro slaves.

3. Other colonies were established more in the north.

The first of these was the little colony of *New Plymouth*, set up in 1620 by a band of Puritan separatists, who found that James would give them no more freedom of worship than Elizabeth. The founders of this colony were called the *Pilgrim Fathers*, and the ship in which they sailed to their new homes was named the *Mayflower*. Before long these Puritan settlers had English neighbours, the most important of the new provinces being that of *Massachusetts*, of which Boston was the capital. These northern colonies were all called *New England*. They differed very much from the southern colonies like Virginia. The settlers were Puritan in religion, being for the most part Independents. They lived by farming their own little farms, by fishing, or by trading. They were more energetic, robust, and determined than the southerners. While in Virginia great planters ruled over many slaves, in New England there was more equality and more liberty. England was so far off in those days that James could not prevent the colonies doing what they wished. After his death fresh colonies were gradually established, so that during the Stewart period nearly all the east coast of North America was planted with English settlers. There is no event so important in this period as was this first beginning of the Greater Britain which has since been extended over nearly every region of the earth. It is due to the bravery and hardihood of these first colonists that the British tongue and race are nowadays scattered all over the world, and not shut up, as was the case, even in Elizabeth's time, in a few little islands in north-western Europe.

The Puritan colonies in New England.

4. During these same years English trade grew apace, side by side with English colonisation. In 1600 Elizabeth had issued a charter establishing the *East India Company*. The shrewd and daring English merchants soon began to carry on

The East India Company.

a great trade with India and the Far East. The impetus given by the great age of Elizabeth was gradually building up the modern England of commerce, colonies, empire, and adventure.

5. England also saw great changes during the reign of James I. The Tudor kings had been almost de-

The struggle
between the
Stewart
kings and
their Par-
liaments.

spotic rulers. Yet they had been popular, since England was well content to do what its kings told it to do. But since the great awakening under Elizabeth, Englishmen began to think and act for themselves. They felt that they ought to have something to say as to how the country was to be governed, and they grew suspicious of their kings. The result was that there began a struggle between the Stewart kings and their Parliaments. This contest of king and Parliament was the greatest feature of the Stewart period. It went on from reign to reign. Sometimes king, sometimes Parliament, seemed to have conquered. One king, James's son, Charles I., lost his life, and a Republic was for a time set up. But before long Charles's son, Charles II., was welcomed back as king. Yet the struggle of king and people still continued, and it was not until Charles II.'s brother, James II., had been driven from the throne that the great contest was ended. And then it ceased because Parliament had beaten the king, and henceforth made itself the strongest thing in the English state.

6. This struggle was hastened by the want of wisdom of the Stewart kings. James I. began badly enough.

Character
and policy of
James I. He was a foreigner who never quite understood English habits. He was indeed clever, well read, and learned, a great writer of books, and the sayer of many shrewd sayings. But he was very fixed in all his ways, obstinate, conceited, lazy, and hesitating. He was fond of living in retire-

ment, and played a poor part when he came before his subjects, being shy, awkward, and undignified. He admired Queen Elizabeth very much, and wanted to go on with her policy. But while Elizabeth always cared for her people, and strove to give them what was good for them, James thought mostly about himself, and always seemed to imagine that if a thing were good for his subjects it would be bad for himself. Englishmen could care little for such a king.

7. The Puritans and Roman Catholics had both expected that James would treat them better than Elizabeth had done, and were disappointed to find that he was as hard to them as James I. and the Puritans. the queen. Thus it was that some of the fiercest Puritans fled over sea to America. But the mass of the Puritans did not want so much as the Pilgrim Fathers. They did not wish to have separate churches and services of their own. But they did desire to alter the fashion of the English Church, and were very angry when James showed as much love of bishops and surplices as Elizabeth had done. They were numerous in the country and strong in Parliament. Parliament grumbled all the more since it disagreed with James's religious policy as well as with his way of ruling the state.

8. The Roman Catholics were still worse off. Despairing of making their position better by fair means, a few hot-headed Catholics formed a plot to blow up king, Lords, and Commons. James and the Catholics. The Gunpowder Plot. On 5th November 1605 the Commons were to go to the House of Lords to see the king open Parliament. The conspirators hired some cellars under the House of Lords, and piled up gunpowder in them in order to destroy king and Parliament. This was called the Gunpowder Plot. The most famous conspirator was *Guy Fawkes*, a daring soldier, who was chosen to fire the

powder. But before the 5th November came the plot was discovered. Fawkes was taken prisoner in his cellar. Other conspirators tried to raise a revolt. No one, however, would join them, and they were soon taken and executed. Most of the Roman Catholics were innocent of any share in the plot, but many of them suffered severely from the rash act. The cruel laws against them were rigidly enforced, until men's memory of the crime became dulled.

9. James was very good-natured, and was always giving his friends money, estates, and titles. This weakness made him all the more dependent on Parliament. But he never quite saw this, and while asking Parliaments constantly for money, he was always lecturing them on the wonderful dignity which belonged to a king, or telling them that, if he chose, he might put an end to the power of Parliament altogether. The result was a long series of petty disputes. One of James's Parliaments, that of 1614, only sat for a few weeks, and was then ended, or *dissolved*, by the king because it was so obstinately opposed to him. It did not so much as pass a single law. For this reason it was called the *Addled Parliament*. After this failure James did without a Parliament for over seven years.

10. James's chief minister was *Robert Cecil*, Earl of Salisbury, the son of the great Lord Burghley, and the ancestor of the Lord Salisbury who became the first Prime Minister of Edward VII. But James never trusted his ministers as Elizabeth had done. He preferred to follow the advice of favourites, amusing and good-looking young men, who would do exactly as he told them, and never want to have their own way. The first of these favourites was a Scotchman named *Robert Carr*. But Carr fell into disgrace for having joined with his wife in plotting a cruel murder, and James would have no

James's
favourites
and
ministers.

more to say to him. His place was taken by *George Villiers*, a handsome, proud, and energetic young man, who soon quite won over the king's heart. Villiers received great estates, and became Duke of Buckingham. He was the more powerful since he was as friendly with *Charles*, the Prince of Wales, as he was with



The First Duke of Buckingham.

(From a Painting by G. Honthorst in the National Portrait Gallery.)

the old king. Buckingham and Charles were much the same age, and had the same tastes and pursuits. James used to call Buckingham 'Steenie,' and his son 'Baby Charles.' Though Buckingham was not a bad man, his sudden rise rather turned his head. He became proud and overbearing, and was very generally hated.

11. While Buckingham was all-powerful, James seldom listened to the advice of his wise Lord Chancellor, *Bacon*. Bacon was a great writer and a famous philosopher. He was also a good lawyer and a far-sighted statesman. But he was too eager to get on and to make money. In 1621 a new Parliament, which was disgusted with

The fall of
Bacon.



Sir Francis Bacon, Kt.

(From an Engraving by Simon Pass, in the Print Room of the British Museum.)

James, attacked the Lord Chancellor for receiving presents from those whose suits he was going to hear. After the fashion of Edward III.'s days, the Commons *impeached* or accused Bacon before the Lords. He confessed his guilt, was convicted, and driven from office.

12. James I. was fond of peace. As soon as he became king he ended the long war with Spain. He was a Protestant and the Spaniards were Catholics, but he

thought that his foreign policy ought not to be influenced by religion. He therefore desired to be on good terms with the Spaniards, though most of his Protestant subjects hated Spain, and could not understand why James should wish her friendship. But at last James proposed that his son Charles should be married to the daughter of the Spanish king. She was called the *Infanta*, a title given by the Spaniards to the daughters of their kings. Protestants in England were horrified at the prospect of their future king being married to a Roman Catholic. But there were so many difficulties in arranging the match that years passed away, and the negotiations seemed likely to last indefinitely.

James I.'s
alliance
with Spain.

13. Early in James's reign Sir Walter Raleigh, one of the most famous of the Elizabethan heroes, had become mixed up with a conspiracy, and had been condemned to death. But James had contented himself with shutting him up in the Tower. For years the bold soldier languished in imprisonment. Eager to be free, he made a proposal to James which led to his release. This was that he should be allowed to lead an expedition up the river *Orinoco*, in South America, where he said that there were rich gold-mines, from which he could refill James's empty purse. The king was delighted at this easy way of getting rich, and let Raleigh go, telling him, however, that he must on no account attack the Spaniards, or occupy lands belonging to the Spanish king. Unluckily, all that part of America was claimed by Spain, and Raleigh soon got into conflict with the Spaniards, who stopped him from going up the Orinoco. After this he was forced to return to England. He brought no gold, but he brought the prospect of a quarrel with Spain. James, however, was resolved not to break with the

Raleigh's
last voyage
and
execution.

Spanish king. In 1618 he ordered Raleigh to be put to death under the sentence passed fifteen years before. To most Englishmen James seemed to be a mean coward in thus abandoning Raleigh to the Spanish fury.

14. James soon had other troubles to face. His daughter Elizabeth was married to a German Protestant prince called the *Elector Palatine*. In 1618 a war broke out in Germany between the Protestants and Catholics, called the *Thirty Years' War*, because it lasted all that time. Before long the Catholics drove Elizabeth and her husband from their dominions, and James was very anxious to have them restored. But he foolishly thought that the best way to get this done was by pressing on his Spanish alliance. However, the more eager James was the less eager were the Spaniards. After years of waiting Charles grew impatient, and started off to Spain with his friend Buckingham in order to woo the Infanta in person. But at Madrid he soon found out that the Spaniards were fooling himself and his father, and that there was no chance of his getting a Spanish wife unless he gave the Catholics in England more liberty than any one was willing they should have. In a great rage Charles went home to England, and soon afterwards forced his father to go to war with the treacherous Spaniards. Before much was done, however, James I. died, in 1625.

CHAPTER XXVII

Charles I., 1625-1649

(Married Henrietta Maria of France)

Principal Persons :

The Duke of Buckingham; Sir John Eliot; Archbishop Laud; John Hampden; John Pym; Thomas Wentworth, Earl of Strafford, Lord Falkland; Edward Hyde; the Earl of Essex; Prince Rupert; Oliver Cromwell; Sir Thomas Fairfax.

Principal Dates :

- 1625. Accession of Charles I.
- 1628. Petition of Right.
- 1629-1640. Charles rules without a Parliament.
- 1637. The Ship-Money Judgment, and the Scottish Prayer Book.
- 1640. The Long Parliament meets.
- 1641. Irish Rebellion.
- 1642. The Civil War begins. Battle of Edgehill.
- 1643. Battle of Newbury.
- 1644. Battle of Marston Moor.
- 1645. Battles of Naseby and Philiphaugh.
- 1646. Charles surrenders.
- 1648. Second Civil War.
- 1649. Execution of Charles I.

1. The Prince of Wales now became Charles I. He was dignified, good-looking, grave, temperate, and religious. But he was neither wise nor clear-headed, and he was unable to understand any standpoint but his own. He had much faith in himself, but little in his people. He was not straightforward, and though obstinate, had great difficulty in making up his mind.

Charles I.
quarrels
with Spain
and with his
Parliaments.

His friendship for Buckingham prevented him from being trusted by his subjects. Moreover, he expected that Parliament, which had always shown great enmity to Spain, would give him plenty of money to fight her. But Charles's first two Parliaments hated Buckingham, and refused to grant Charles any taxes as long as he trusted to Buckingham's advice. Charles



King Charles I.
(From a Painting by Van Dyck.)

would not give up his friend, and felt indignant that Parliament would not help him to carry on a war which it approved. He soon dissolved both Parliaments. It looked as if he was going to fight his

Parliament as well as the Spaniards. But it was foolish for a king who had so little to attempt to do so much.

2. Early in his reign Charles married *Henrietta Maria*, sister of Louis XIII., King of France. The marriage ensured him French support against the Spaniards, but it was not a popular one since the queen was a Roman Catholic. But Charles so mismanaged things that

Charles's
quarrel
with France.



Queen Henrietta Maria, Wife of Charles I.
(From a Painting by Van Dyck.)

before long he quarrelled with his brother-in-law, the French king, as well as with the King of Spain. He now had war with both France and Spain on his hands, and utterly failed in both.

3. Charles could not pay his way, so that in 1628 he was forced to summon his third Parliament. Led by a Cornish gentleman named Sir John Eliot, the Commons drew up a document called the *Petition of Right*. In this they required that Charles should never raise taxes or forced loans without the consent of Parliament, never rule his subjects by *martial* or military law, and never put any one into prison without lawful reason. After some hesitation Charles accepted the Petition. Parliament then granted him a large sum of money.

The Petition
of Right.

4. Soon after this Buckingham was murdered. But the king's policy remained the same, so that people saw that the fault had always been with Charles rather than with the Duke. Parliament began to grumble afresh when it heard that, despite the Petition of Right, the king was still levying some duties called *tunnage and poundage*, for which he had never received a grant. They were still more angry with the sort of men to whom Charles gave bishoprics. Many of these belonged to a new party in the Church, called from their teacher, a Dutchman named Arminius, the *Arminian* party, which was very much opposed to the Puritans. When Parliament met again there was a stormy scene. Charles ordered the House of Commons to adjourn. But the Commons shut the door in the face of the king's messenger. The Speaker, afraid of the king's wrath, got up from his chair and was about to end the sitting; but two members held him down in his seat, and forced him to allow the House to continue. Eliot carried through a resolution declaring that all who paid *tunnage and poundage*, and all who favoured the king's Arminian way of thinking in religion, were enemies of the kingdom. Then the doors were opened and the king's messenger let in. Parliament was dis-

The murder
of Bucking-
ham, and
Charles's
final quarrel
with his
third Parlia-
ment.

solved. and Eliot was thrown into the Tower, where he died of an illness brought about by the harshness of his imprisonment.

5. For eleven years Charles ruled without a Parliament. He at last made peace with France and Spain, so that he had no longer so much need of heavy taxes as in previous years. But he continued to levy tunnage and poundage. Charles rules without a Parliament. and he revived various old-fashioned rights of the crown, out of which he could make money. One of these was *ship-money*. Charles quite wisely wished to make the British navy strong enough to protect his shores from invasion. But instead of calling on Parliament to provide him with funds, he revived an ancient claim of the crown to require the different counties to build ships for the king, or to pay him money that he might get them made. *John Hampden*, a Buckinghamshire gentleman, refused to pay this tax. But in 1637 the judges decided that the king had a right to levy it. Hampden's resistance to ship-money stirred up much opposition to Charles.

6. Charles's chief adviser in church matters was *William Laud*, Archbishop of Canterbury. Laud was a very learned, hard-working, and energetic man, who really wished to make things better in the Church. Laud and the Puritans. But he was narrow-minded and meddlesome, and was more opposed to the Puritans than any of the earlier archbishops. He was the leader of the Arminians, and thinking that the Puritans had no right to be inside the Church at all, he did his best to turn them out of it. He loved elaborate ritual and stately ceremonies. One thing he did was to alter the position of the communion table. In the days of Edward VI., stone altars had been broken up and movable tables of wood set up in the middle of the *chancels* or eastern parts of the churches. Laud ordered that these tables should be

placed at the east end of the church, and should be fenced off by rails from the approach of the people. He managed to get this order carried out everywhere, and to this day you can see in any English church the holy table set up altarwise in accordance with Laud's wish. The Puritans thought that Laud was no good Protestant, but a Roman Catholic in disguise. This was not the case, for Laud was as much opposed to the



Archbishop Laud.

Pope as he was to the Puritans. He held the views of the modern High Churchmen, while the Puritans were more like Low Churchmen. Neither understood the other, and both wanted to make everybody follow what they themselves thought right.

7. For the moment Laud had the upper hand. He could compel the Puritans to obey him by means of the *High Commission Court* and the *Star Chamber*.

The High
Commissioner and
the Star
Chamber.

The High Commission Court, first set up by Elizabeth, was an ecclesiastical court in which the king carried out that royal supremacy which he had inherited from the Tudors. The Star Chamber, first established as we

have seen by Henry VII., had done good work in Tudor times in putting down turbulent and disorderly nobles. It now inflicted very cruel punishments on all who opposed the king and the archbishop.

8. After Laud, Charles's chief adviser was *Sir Thomas Wentworth*, a Yorkshire gentleman, who had taken part in the attack on Buckingham, but had afterwards gone over to Charles and become Wentworth in Ireland. Governor of Ireland. He was a hard, able man, who disliked half measures. He ruled Ireland wisely and firmly, but roughly, and put down all opposition with an iron hand. Laud and Wentworth were close friends, and called the system which they believed in 'Thorough.' They thought that Charles was weak in not carrying on things with such a high hand as they did.

9. Scotland gave Charles a great deal of trouble. James I. had brought back bishops to the Scotch Church, much to the disgust of the Presbyterians. Charles went further, and in 1637 ordered that the Scots should give up their own simple form of worship and use in their churches a Prayer Book, drawn up by Laud, and based upon the English Prayer Book. All Scotland rose up in rebellion. The Scottish clergy refused to read The Scottish Prayer Book, and the National Covenant. the new Prayer Book. They met together in the general council of the Church of Scotland which was called the *General Assembly*, and declared that they would have neither bishops nor Prayer Book in their Presbyterian Church. They also drew up in 1638 a document called the *National Covenant*, by which they pledged themselves to resist 'Popery, Prelacy, and all superstition.'

10. Charles was helpless against the Scots. He had no troops and no means of enforcing his will on a whole nation. He strove to stir up the old ill-feeling between the English and the Scots. On two occasions

he managed to raise an army. The two wars which he strove to wage against the Scots were called the *Bishops' Wars*, because in them Charles strove to restore Episcopacy in Scotland. But he soon found that he had wasted his funds in collecting soldiers who would not fight. He was forced to make peace with the Scots and accept all that they had done. But he was not only beaten in Scotland. The Scots had shown the English how they might resist if they wished. And the cost of the campaigns had reduced Charles to beggary.

The Scots
successfully
resist
Charles.

11. Charles recalled Wentworth from Ireland and made him Earl of Strafford and chief minister. But Strafford saw no way to get money except by calling Parliament together. This was done in the spring of 1640, but Parliament would give Charles nothing, unless he changed his way of ruling. Charles would not do this, and dissolved it. This Parliament sat so brief a time that it was called the *Short Parliament*. But in November 1640 Charles was forced to assemble another Parliament. This body lasted in a way for nearly twenty years, and was therefore called the *Long Parliament*. These twenty years witnessed more changes than any other period of our history.

The meet-
ing of the
Long Par-
liament.

12. Before the meeting of the Long Parliament Charles had done what he pleased. He was now powerless. Led by Hampden, the hero of the ship-money struggle, and by John Pym, a wise and eloquent squire of Somerset, the Commons set to work to break down the whole system of Charles's government. They abolished the Star Chamber and the High Commission Courts. They declared that the decision of the judges in favour of ship-money was bad law. They impeached Strafford and Laud, the chief ministers of Charles's tyranny.

The Long
Parliament
destroys
Charles I.'s
system of
government.

13. Laud's trial was put off, but Strafford was at once brought up before the Lords. However, it was soon found that it was very hard to prove him guilty of any legal offence. The Commons accused him of treason, but his crime was against the country, and the only treason known to the law was treason against the king, whom Strafford had served but too well. Before long the Commons dropped the impeachment and drew up what was called a *Bill of Attainder*. This was simply a new law enacting that the person mentioned in it should be slain. Henry VIII. had found Acts of Attainder a convenient way of getting rid of his enemies. The Commons now fell back on one of the worst examples of the most violent of our kings. But they carried through their will. As a new law, the Bill had to pass through both the Lords and the Commons, and then to receive the royal assent. The two Houses willingly passed it, but Charles had promised Strafford that not a hair of his head should be touched. Yet when it came to the point he thought more of himself than of his minister. After some hesitation he gave his consent, and Strafford was beheaded on Tower Hill. Four years afterwards the aged Laud suffered the same fate.

Attainder of
Strafford.

14. In 1641 a terrible rebellion broke out in Ireland. After Strafford's iron hand had been withdrawn, the native Irish rose against the Protestant settlers, and revenged themselves for long oppression by working all kinds of horrors. The story of the doings of the Catholic rebels was told with much exaggeration in England, and was used by the Puritans to blacken the cause of the king, who was married to a Catholic wife, and was thought too friendly to Catholics.

The Irish
Rebellion.

15. Meanwhile fresh troubles were arising in England. The Long Parliament had been of one mind in destroy-

ing the royal despotism, but it began to break up into parties when the question arose how the Church was to be managed in the future. One party, headed by the thoughtful and pious *Lord Falkland*, and a lawyer named *Edward Hyde*, was content if the novelties brought in by Laud were abolished. But the majority of the Commons followed Pym and Hampden in approving of what was called the *Root and Branch Bill*. This was a scheme for abolishing bishops and the Prayer Book, and making the English Church Presbyterian like the Church of Scotland. It was carried through the House of Commons by a small majority.

16. Charles had now again a chance. If he could persuade the party of Hyde and Falkland that he had really given up his old policy, he might easily have won back power as the upholder of the Church as established by Elizabeth. Angry that Charles was again getting dangerous, Pym and Hampden asked the Commons to pass what they called the *Grand Remonstrance*, a long document in which all the old grievances against him were once more brought forward. Hyde and Falkland objected to raking up these matters afresh. After a hot debate the *Grand Remonstrance* was carried, but only by a majority of eleven. The once unanimous Commons were now nearly evenly divided.

17. Charles as usual proved his own worst enemy. He soon by his foolish acts proved up to the hilt the doctrine of Pym and Hampden that the king could never be trusted. He went down to the House of Commons, and, accusing Pym and Hampden and three of their friends of treason, strove to arrest them. But the five members had fled to the city, and the only result of what was called the *Arrest of the Five Members* was to increase the deep distrust felt for

the treacherous king. So hot was the feeling against him that Charles had to run away from London. For a long time efforts were made to bring about a reconciliation, but the Commons insisted that Charles, if he came back, should only be a nominal king, leaving all power in their hands. As many of those who had followed Hyde and Falkland, and all those who hated the Puritans, began to rally round the king, Charles thought he was still strong enough to refuse such bad terms. As king and Parliament could not agree, the only thing that remained was for the sword to decide which was the stronger.

18. The *Great Civil War*, or the Great Rebellion, began in the summer of 1642, and lasted for more than four years. It was not simply a fight between king and Parliament. Such a struggle The Great Rebellion. would not have lasted so long or have been so nearly even. It was a contest between two nearly equal parties in the country, one of which was led by the king and the other by the majority of the House of Commons. But nearly half the Commons and more than half of the Lords were on the king's side, and neither the king's friends nor his enemies differed very much as to their ideas of how the country was to be ruled. Perhaps the clearest dividing line between the two parties was on the question of religion. All who loved bishops and the Prayer Book were for the king. All those thoroughgoing Puritans, who wanted to reform the Church root and branch, fought for the Parliament. The north and west of England and most of Wales were for the king. In London, the eastern and south-eastern counties, the majority was for the Parliament. The king's friends were called *Cavaliers*, that is, horsemen, or gentlemen; the Parliament's the *Roundheads*, because the Puritans cropped their hair short. But these were mere nicknames.

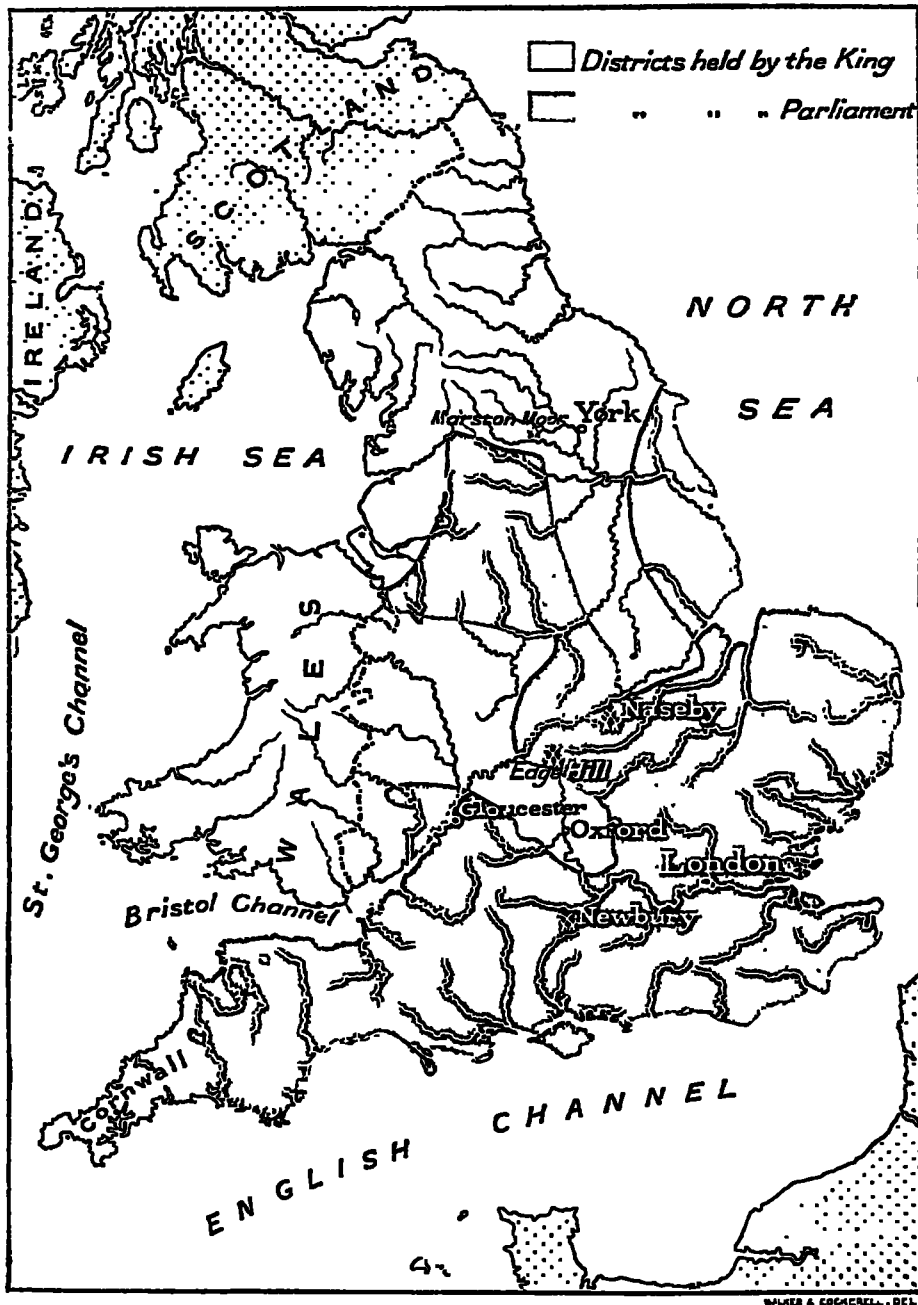
19. In the early part of the struggle the king did

better than the Parliament. Charles began the war in the Midlands and marched southwards towards London. The *Earl of Essex*, the Parliamentary general, tried to stop his way. This led to the first battle of the war at *Edgehill*, on the border of Oxfordshire and Warwickshire. Neither party gained a decided victory. But Essex retreated during the night. This enabled Charles to march on to Oxford, which he made his capital. The king then pushed on towards London, but he was afraid to fight, and went back to Oxford.

The Battle
of Edgehill.

20. In 1643 Charles's successes continued. His generals conquered the north and the west. Hampden was slain in a petty skirmish at *Chalgrove Field*, about ten miles east of Oxford, while Pym died worn out with work and worry. But Essex was able to prevent *Gloucester* falling into the king's hands, and secured his way back to London by fighting the battle of *Newbury*, in which Falkland perished. So even were both parties that there seemed no early hope of ending the struggle. Accordingly the Parliament made a treaty with the Scots called the *Solemn League and Covenant*, by which the Scots army was sent to their help in return for a promise to make the English Church Presbyterian.¹ In 1644 the Scots joined the Parliamentary army. Prince Rupert of the Rhine, the dashing son of Charles's sister Elizabeth, was sent by his uncle to stay their progress. The two armies fought the first decisive battle of the war at *Marston Moor*, near York. Rupert's cavalry nearly won the day, but a brilliant charge of the horse-men of the Puritan eastern counties under *Oliver Crom-*

¹ This Solemn League and Covenant of 1643, a treaty between the two nations, must be carefully distinguished from the purely Scottish National Covenant of 1638. But both documents aimed at the establishment of Presbyterianism, the earlier one in Scotland, and the later one in England as well.



ENGLAND AND WALES DURING THE GREAT CIVIL WAR
(MAY 1643).

well changed the fortune of war, and the Royalists were absolutely defeated. Yet even after this Charles won victories in the south over the slow-minded Essex.

21. Moreover, a strong diversion in favour of the king was effected in Scotland by the gallant *Marquis of*

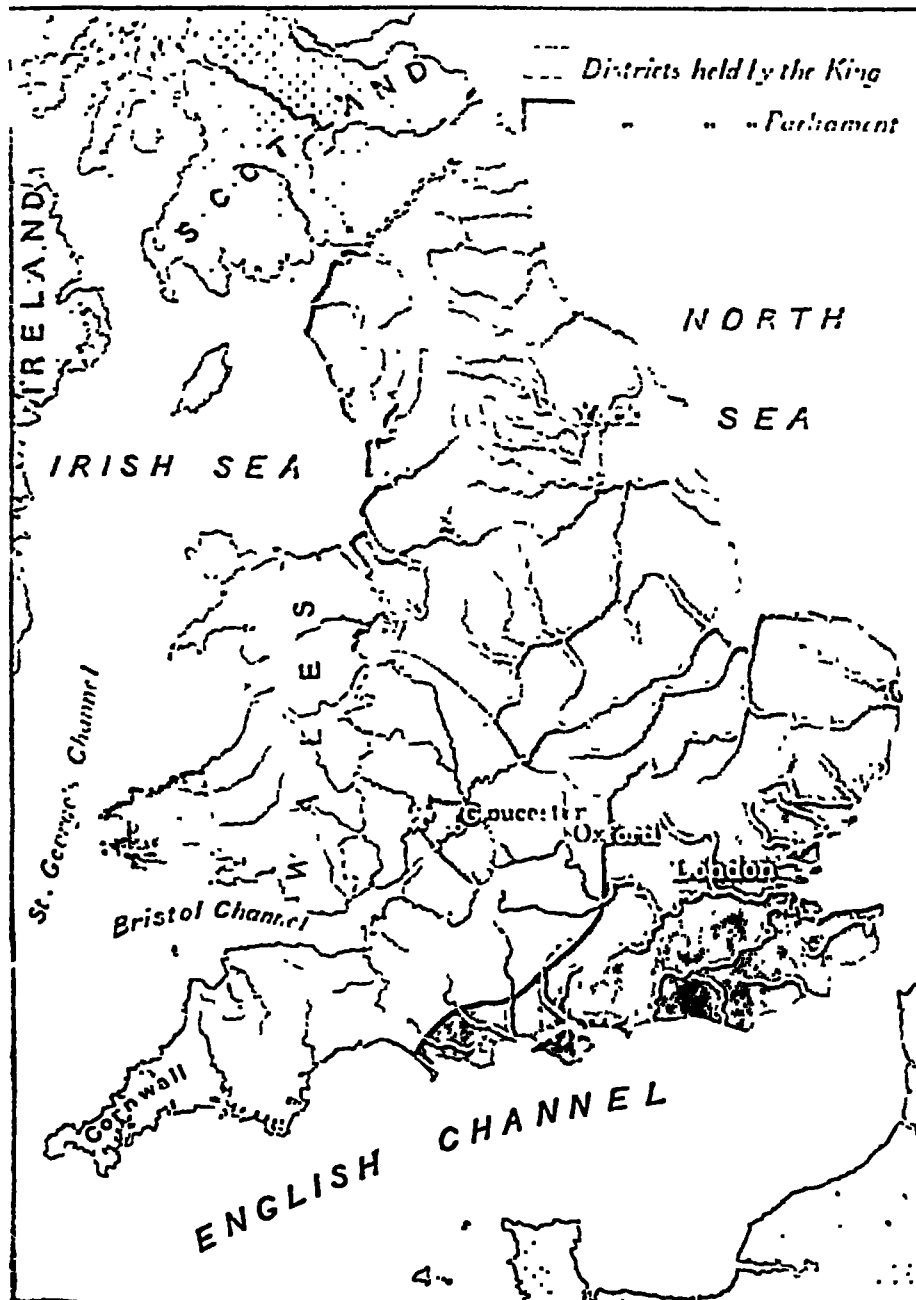
Montrose's *Montrose*. Finding that he could get few victories and defeat.

Montrose inspired the fierce and warlike clans of the Highlands to take up arms for the monarchy. At the head of the Highlanders *Montrose* won a marvellous succession of victories. But in 1645 he ventured to invade southern Scotland, and was so badly defeated at *Philiphaugh* that he fled to the Continent.

22. Cromwell had shown himself the best soldier of the Parliament. A Huntingdonshire squire's son, he was

Cromwell and the New Model. descended from a Welsh nephew of Thomas Cromwell, Henry VIII.'s minister. He had

sat in Parliament, and when war broke out he won over the eastern counties to the Puritan cause. He was a thoroughly practical man, and he despised generals like Essex because they did not know how to carry the war through successfully. He now persuaded Parliament to accept a scheme for reorganising the army called the *New Model*. By this the drill, pay, and discipline were very much improved, and the red coats, already worn by Cromwell's eastern counties' men, were adopted as the uniform of the army. The red coats, worn by English soldiers till recently, show that Cromwell's New Model was the starting-point of the modern British army. Moreover, Parliament passed the *Self-denying Ordinance* by which all members of Parliament, whether Lords or Commons, were forced to resign their posts in the army. This got rid of Essex and the other half-hearted generals. In their stead *Sir Thomas Fairfax*, a Yorkshire gentleman, became commander-in-chief. But Cromwell, though a member of Parliament, was thought so necessary



ENGLAND AND WALES DURING THE GREAT CIVIL WAR:
(NOVEMBER 1644).

that he was allowed to retain his position in the army, and was made general of the horse.

23. In 1645 the New Model defeated Charles at *Naseby*. This was practically the end of the war, though for a long time there were scattered garrisons that held out for the king. In 1646 Charles was so hard pressed that he was forced to surrender. He chose to yield himself to the Scots rather than to the English since he thought that he could get better terms from them. But the Scots, finding that he would not set up

The Battle
of Naseby,
and the
defeat of
the king.



Soldier with Musket and Crutch, about 1630.

Presbyterianism in England, handed him over in disgust to the English and went home.

24. Even in his captivity Charles was still an important person. The Puritans had now broken up into two parties, called *Presbyterian* and *Independent*. The chief dispute was about the form which the government of the Church was to take. The Independents disliked the

Presbyterians
and Inde-
pendents

rigid and intolerant Presbyterian system of the Scots, and believed that there should be more religious liberty, and that every Christian congregation should settle its own affairs. Parliament was mainly Presbyterian, but the Independents were stronger in the army. The result was a fierce contest between Parliament and the army, and each party tried to win the king to its side. But Charles, though he negotiated with both, remained true to neither.

25. Before long the soldiers got the better of Parliament. Parliament had appealed to the sword, and it was but natural that the soldier should have the last word over the statesman. In 1648 the friends of Parliament now took up arms against the army which it had created. The struggle which ensued is sometimes called the *Second Civil War*. The Scots once more invaded England to help their Presbyterian friends, and there was a Presbyterian rising in Essex and Kent. But Cromwell's soldiers easily scattered their enemies, and marching back in triumph to London, drove away all the Lords and Commoners at Westminster who favoured the Presbyterian party. Charles had latterly leant to that side, and the fierce Independent soldiers now denounced him as a traitor and a man of blood, who had caused the renewed fighting. The remnant of the Parliament, called the *Rump*, at the order of the soldiers set up a *High Court of Justice* to try the king. Charles declared that this court had no right to try its king. Nevertheless it passed sentence of death upon him. On 30th January 1649 Charles was beheaded outside Whitehall Palace. He died so nobly and piously that his incurable faults were almost forgotten.

The triumph
of the In-
dependents,
and the
execution of
Charles I.

CHAPTER XXVIII

The Commonwealth and the Protectorate, 1649-1660

Principal Persons :

Oliver Cromwell; Fairfax; Barbon; Louis XIV., King of France;
Admiral Blake; Richard Cromwell; General Monk.

Principal Dates :

- 1649. The Commonwealth proclaimed. Ireland conquered.
- 1650. Battle of Dunbar.
- 1651. Battle of Worcester.
- 1653. Cromwell made Protector.
- 1658. Death of Cromwell.
- 1660. Restoration of Charles II.

1. Putting aside the claims of the son of the dead monarch, Charles, Prince of Wales, the Rump of the Long Parliament resolved that henceforth England should be a *Commonwealth* or Republic, ruled without a king or House of Lords. This made the House of Commons the only governing body. But no general election was held. The Rump, which was less than a hundred strong, continued to act, though it in no sense represented the people. At first there was some excuse for this, since, though England was quiet, Ireland and Scotland were at war against the new English Government.

2. Since the rebellion of 1641 Ireland had been in a very disturbed state. As Charles's cause lost ground, his friends in Ireland made terms with the Roman Catholics, who were now the strongest party

in Ireland. The Puritans, however, hated Papists far more bitterly than Charles I. had done, and resolved to stamp out the Irish Catholics. In 1649 Cromwell took an army over the St. George's Channel. His strong, stern policy soon proved successful. The first town that resisted him was *Drogheda*. On capturing it he brutally slew all its defenders. Before long the back of the Irish resistance was broken. The Puritan Commonwealth was set up in Ireland, and the Catholics were kept down with a firm hand. To strengthen the Protestant party many of Cromwell's soldiers were settled on the lands forfeited by Irish Royalists or Catholics. Many of the native Irish were driven beyond the Shannon into Connaught. Henceforth Ireland was at peace, and with peace came some sort of prosperity. But no prosperity would reconcile the Irish to Cromwell's rule, which seemed to them more cruel and bigoted than even the government of Strafford.

The Puritan
conquest of
Ireland.

3. In Scotland, as in England, Presbyterians were now Royalists, and the Presbyterians still ruled Scotland. At their request the Prince of Wales came to rule Scotland as Charles II. But the Rump resolved to drive out Charles. Fairfax now gave up the chief command, and Cromwell took his place. In 1650 Cromwell invaded Scotland, and cleverly defeated the Presbyterian army at *Dunbar*. In 1651 Charles thought it best to invade England, where he hoped the Royalists would join him. But most Englishmen were weary of fighting, and had no mind to run the risks of a fresh civil war. The king got into the very heart of England, but he was joined by few new recruits. At *Worcester* Cromwell fell upon the Royalist army and scattered it with the utmost ease. He called this victory 'a crowning mercy.' It meant the end of fighting, for by the defeat of the Scots all the three kingdoms were

The Battles
of Dunbar and
Worcester.

280 The Commonwealth and the Protectorate [1653-

brought under the rule of the Rump. The King of Scots managed to reach France after all sorts of narrow escapes on the way.

4. These victories made Cromwell and his soldiers more powerful than ever. They now began to quarrel

The expulsion of the Rump. with the Rump, which they had set up a few years before. They said that the Rump ought to dissolve itself and let a real

Parliament be elected. They complained that it had



Oliver Cromwell.

(From the Painting by Samuel Cooper at Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge.)

gone to war with the Dutch, who, as brother Protestants, ought to have been kept friendly with England. They denounced the Rump for greediness and jobbery. At last, in 1652, Cromwell went down

to the House of Commons, followed by a band of soldiers. He turned out the members, locked the door, and went home again. Nobody was sorry at the fate of the Rump. Still, with all its faults, it was all that was left of the Parliament of England. And now the army had destroyed the Commons, as well as the Monarchy and the Lords.

5. Cromwell could now do what he liked. But he was anxious that England should not be controlled by soldiers only, though he was not willing that she should choose freely how she was to be ruled. His first idea was that the country ought to be governed by 'the saints,' that is, by men of strong Puritan views. He therefore gathered together a number of earnest Puritans to discuss with him what was to be done. This assembly is often called *Barebones' Parliament*, from a fanatical Puritan named Barbon, who sat in it. But it was no real Parliament, since its members were not chosen by the people but by Cromwell. It was so crotchety and unpractical that Cromwell soon grew tired of it. Finally he persuaded it to separate.

The
Barebones'
Parliament.

6. Cromwell and the officers now settled for themselves how the country was to be ruled. Their scheme was contained in a paper called the *Instrument of Government*. By it Cromwell was made Lord Protector. This office made him chief ruler, so that he was very much like a king, though he had not the name of king. He was to be helped by a Parliament consisting of a House of Commons only. But earlier Parliaments had represented England and Wales alone. In Cromwell's Parliaments members also sat for Ireland and Scotland, so that for a short time there was only one Parliament for every part of our islands. But Cromwell's plans did not work well. His Parliaments quarrelled with him almost as much as the Parlia-

Cromwell's
rule as
Protector.

ments of Charles I. had quarrelled with the king. Cromwell was a firmer ruler than Charles, and treated his Parliaments more roughly than the king had dared to do. However, he was very anxious to seem to be a constitutional ruler, and did not like to do without a Parliament. Yet in his next Parliament he allowed only his supporters to sit. This friendly Parliament changed the system of government. Cromwell was made more like a king than ever. He was indeed offered the title of king, but he refused it because his soldiers hated the very name. At the same time a sort of House of Lords was set up, called the *Other House*, consisting of life peers. In fact the old Constitution was very nearly brought back, with Cromwell instead of Charles as king. But the people who wished for the old Constitution also desired to be ruled by Charles's son, and Cromwell's old friends were disgusted at their leader imitating so much of the ancient fashion. The result was that Cromwell nearly fell between two stools. But he was so active, bold, and able that his plan of government outlasted his life, though most people disliked it.

7. Cromwell showed that he was as great a statesman as a general. He tried to settle the Church question by giving more toleration to different ways of thinking than any earlier Government had permitted. This was a very wise step, since there had always been great differences of opinion on church matters since the Reformation, and it was only by the various bodies of Christians living peaceably side by side that a real settlement could ever be made. Cromwell allowed Puritans of every sort, Presbyterians, Independents, and Baptists, to hold livings. He even permitted the Jews, who, since Edward I.'s time, had never been allowed to settle in England, to return to the country and to worship God after their own

Cromwell's
Puritan
Church.

fashion. But he would not suffer Churchmen to use the Prayer Book, or Roman Catholics to hear Mass. This was not very consistent, but he knew that the Church and the Catholic parties wished to bring back Charles Stewart. So he was afraid to tolerate them. Cromwell also had many schemes for making people better and more virtuous, but he found it impossible to force Englishmen to be good by magistrates and soldiers.

8. Cromwell's foreign policy was a great success. He joined Louis XIV., the young King of France, in his war against Spain, whose power had been rapidly declining since the days of Philip II. Before long the New Model army made itself as much feared on the Continent as it had been by the Cavaliers. With Cromwell's help France soon defeated Spain and became the chief nation in Europe. Through the Protector's wisdom England won back the great place she had held in the days of Elizabeth. Moreover, England now also distinguished herself on the sea. *Admiral Blake*, who, in the days of the Rump, had fought very bravely against the Dutch, now won brilliant victories over the Spaniards. Blake had fought against Charles I., but he cared more for England than for party. 'It is not for us sailors,' he said, 'to mind state affairs but to keep foreigners from fooling us.' He was one of the greatest English sailors who have ever lived. In Cromwell's days the island of *Jamaica* was taken from the Spaniards, and has ever since belonged to England.

9. All these things show that Cromwell was one of the best and wisest rulers England ever had. But with all his greatness we must never forget that he ruled by the sword and not with the consent of the people. He was more of a despot than Charles I., but he was always efficient and honest. Most Englishmen hated him

Cromwell's
foreign
policy.

Death of
Cromwell.

and his ways, and would have gladly got rid of him. Yet they could not help admiring much that he did, especially as regards foreign affairs. But he early wore himself out, and in 1658 died.

10. *Richard Cromwell*, Oliver's eldest son, was proclaimed Lord Protector, son succeeding father just

as if they had been kings. He was an easy-going, weak man, who would not work hard. In a few months the army,

which never loved him as it had loved his father, drove him from power, and Richard was quite content to go. But the army did not know what to do. Its different generals began quarrelling with each other. So helpless were they that they at last resolved to bring back the Rump of the Long Parliament to power. But the Rump was as narrow and foolish as ever, and was as little able as the army to govern wisely. Everything seemed drifting into a hopeless muddle.

11. Wise men began to see that the only way to set things straight was to bring back the old king and the old Constitution. The first to realise

this was *General Monk*, a silent, cautious man, the commander of the army that

garrisoned Scotland. He marched with his troops from Scotland to London, and said no word as to what he was going to do. But he saw that every one was sick of the Rump and the army. He therefore declared for a *Free Parliament*, that is, for a Parliament chosen freely by the electors and not one in which only those were allowed to sit who agreed with the Government. His action was welcomed with extraordinary enthusiasm. In the spring of 1660 the freely chosen Parliament assembled. Its first step was to invite the son of Charles I. to come back to the throne of his ancestors. On 29th May 1660, his birthday, Charles II. entered London. This was called the *Restoration*.

Never was there such rejoicing in England. The rule of the prim saints and the stern soldiers was over. The Commonwealth had collapsed like the Protectorate. The king had come back to his own again. There was no great danger of the young king proving so tyrannical as his father, since the good laws of the early sessions of the Long Parliament were still in force. Moreover, the Restoration was not only the Restoration of the old Monarchy; it also meant the bringing back of the old Parliament, and before long it meant the bringing back of the old Church.

CHAPTER XXIX

Charles II., 1660-1685 (Married Catharine of Braganza)

Principal Persons :

Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon ; John Bunyan ; William Penn ;
Sir Christopher Wren ; Louis XIV. ; the Earl of Shaftesbury ;
the Earl of Danby ; Titus Oates ; James, Duke of York ;
Princess Mary of York ; William III. of Orange ; Lord
Russell ; Algernon Sidney.

Principal Dates :

- 1660. Accession of Charles II.
- 1665. First Dutch War, and the Plague.
- 1666. The Fire of London.
- 1667. Fall of Clarendon.
- 1670. Treaty of Dover.
- 1672. Second Dutch War.
- 1673. Rule of Danby begins. Test Act.
- 1678. The Popish Plot, and the Fall of Danby.
- 1679. Exclusion Bill brought in, and Habeas Corpus Act passed.
- 1683. Rye House Plot.
- 1685. Death of Charles II.

1. After the Restoration there still remained many questions to be settled. But Parliament had the main share in determining these, and Parliament was now thoroughly Royalist. All that had been done under the Commonwealth was looked upon as having no warrant in law. But a general pardon was given to all who had fought against Charles I. From this none were excepted save members of the High Court that had sentenced the king. Several of these were executed as traitors.

The bones of Cromwell and other dead judges of the king were dug up from their graves, and hung up on the common gallows. The Puritan army was broken up. However, a few regiments, both of horse and foot,



Charles II.
(From St. James's Palace.)

were kept under arms to serve as a body-guard for the restored king. These make the starting-point of our modern army. Up to the Civil War there had been no standing army of regular soldiers in England. Ever since there has always been one, though at

first it was very small. The union between England, Scotland, and Ireland which Cromwell had set up was ignored, and Scotland and Ireland had again their own Parliaments. But in Scotland the Presbyterians were badly treated, and bishops were brought back in the Church. In Ireland the chief difference between the rule of the Restoration and that of Cromwell was that the English lords of Ireland were



Dress of the Horse Guards at the Restoration.

now Cavaliers and not Puritans. But in their eagerness to give back the king's Irish friends their property, the new governors of Ireland took away a great deal of land from the native Irish and granted it to Protestants.

2. The English Church was made what it had been before the Rebellion. The Prayer Book and Bishops were restored. There was some talk of making the Church broader, so as to include some of the Presbyterians, but nothing came of it. The party which

now won the upper hand was, a few years after this, called the *High Church* party. But many of the Puritans conformed to the Church. These afterwards got the name of the *Low Church* party. However, a great number of Puritans were now permanently shut out of the Church, and those who now ruled it took no pains to keep them in. All the Puritan clergy were required to read the Prayer Book, and if they would not do so they were turned out of their livings. They were therefore forced to set up separate congregations of their own. These were now called *Dissenters*, because they disagreed with the Church, and *Separatists*, because they separated from it. Some of these were *Independents* and *Baptists*, who had already been separatists under Charles I. Others were *Presbyterians*, who had long hoped to bring over the whole Church to their way of thinking. The Dissenters were also called *Nonconformists*, a word which had once meant the discontented Puritan members of the Church who refused to *conform* to its ceremonies. Now, however, it meant just the same thing as *Dissenter* or Separatist. But the Church had not learned tolerance during its days of suffering. The Dissenters were not allowed to build chapels of their own or meet together for worship. Parliament, which before the Civil War had favoured the Puritans, was now against them. It passed a series of laws which made things hard for the Nonconformists, and especially for their ministers, who often spent many years in prison. The most gifted of the Dissenting preachers, John Bunyan, wrote his famous *Pilgrim's Progress* in Bedford Gaol, where he was shut up for more than twelve years.

3. Charles II. carried on Cromwell's foreign policy, and kept up the friendship between England and France. He married *Catharine of Braganza*, the sister

Settlement
of the
Church.

of the King of Portugal, the ally of France and the enemy of Spain. But Charles could not hold his own with Louis XIV. in the same firm way that Charles II.'s foreign policy. Cromwell had done. Moreover, the King of France was now so powerful that Englishmen began to be afraid of helping him to win more territory. So the French alliance became unpopular.

4. Charles was as careful to protect English commerce and colonies as Cromwell had been. During his reign our trade with India became very great, and the beginning of our Indian possessions was made. The little island of *Bombay* was given by the Portuguese to Charles as part of Queen Catharine's wedding-portion, and has ever since been English. The growth of our colonies and trade made us bad friends with the Dutch, the chief commercial nation of those days. England had already fought one war with the Dutch on questions of trade during the Commonwealth. In 1665 it began another. Both were mainly waged at sea, and were very closely contested, for the Dutch navy was very famous, and the Dutch were exceedingly stubborn fighters. On one occasion the Dutch fleet sailed up the Medway and burnt some of the ships in Chatham Dockyard. But the English also fought very well, and when peace was signed, the advantages were pretty equally balanced. In America England won the Dutch colony called *New Amsterdam*, which filled up the gap between New England and Virginia. It was given to the king's brother, James, Duke of York, and took from him the name of *New York*. This is the famous state and city which are nowadays the greatest in the American Union. Other new colonies were set up. One, *Carolina*, took its name from Carolus, the Latin form of Charles's name. Another, *Pennsylvania*, was founded by William Penn, a member of a new sect called *Quakers*, whose members refused to take

oaths or to fight in the wars. and lived very hard-working, thrifty, and virtuous lives. As time went on the English took away from the Dutch much of their trade.

5. The chief adviser of Charles II. was *Edward Hyde*, the former friend of Falkland, who was now made Earl of Clarendon and Lord Chancellor.

He was an honourable but stiff and old-fashioned man, and a strong upholder of the king and the Church. But Charles did not trust him overmuch. Though clever and shrewd beyond all the other Stewart kings, Charles bitterly disappointed those who had hoped great things from his return. He was lazy, selfish, extravagant, and pleasure-loving. Yet he was amusing, witty, and good-natured, so that he never altogether lost his popularity. But he set a very bad example to his subjects, which many of them did not fail to follow. Grave men were disgusted at the bad government and wanton luxury of the court.

Clarendon
and
Charles II.

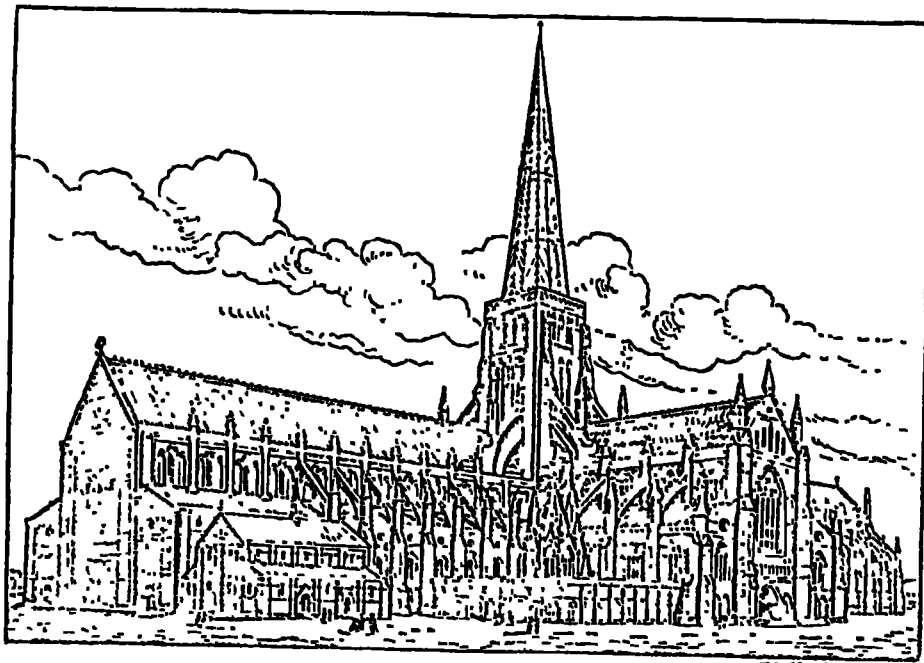
6. There was soon a great deal of grumbling. Several misfortunes that beset the country increased the discontent. Among such was the *Great Plague of London*, which raged during the hot summer of 1665. The disease proved terribly

The Plague
and the Fire
of London.

infectious, and swept away many thousands of people. Next year another calamity fell upon the capital. The *Great Fire of London* ravaged the City from end to end, burning down many churches, including old St. Paul's. But some good came from the fire, for the houses, when rebuilt, were made more solid and the streets wider. Then the City became more healthy and comfortable to live in. Fortunately there then lived a great architect named *Sir Christopher Wren*. He rebuilt many of the churches in a very beautiful and elegant fashion. Wren was also the architect of the present St. Paul's Cathedral. The style he chose was the classic or Italian style. But majestic as Wren's

new cathedral is, it could not altogether make up for the loss of the old Gothic St. Paul's, one of the finest churches in England, and full of memories of many periods of her history.

7. In 1667 Clarendon was driven from power. In his place a group of five politicians came into office. They are often called the *Cabal*, a name which, curiously enough, can be spelt out by their initials. The chief merits of the Cabal were that they

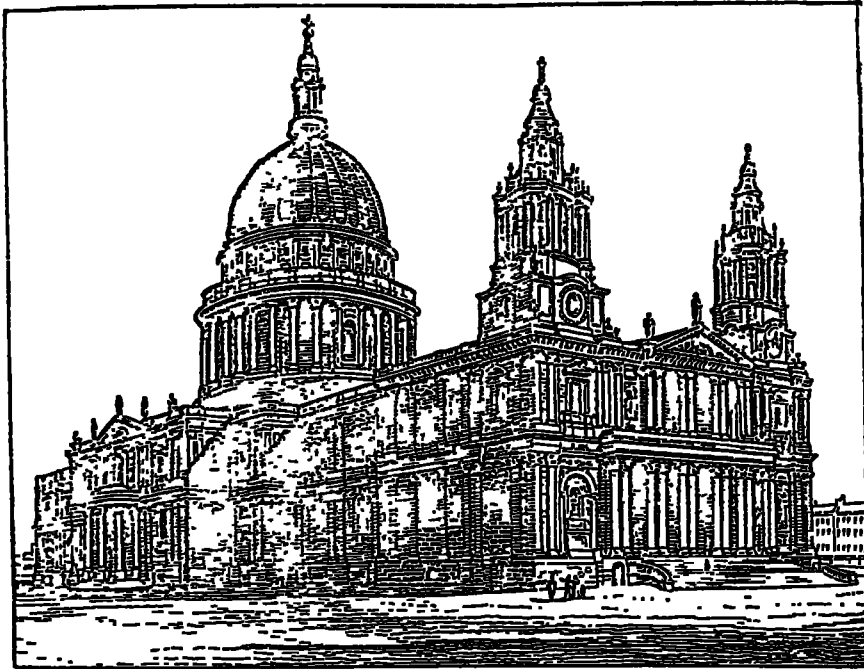


Old St. Paul's, London.

(Mainly built in the Thirteenth Century : destroyed by Fire, 1666.)

wished to be more tolerant in religion and less friendly with Louis XIV. But they were greedy and selfish men, though one of them, Lord Ashley, afterwards Earl of *Shaftesbury*, was extremely able. Before long they began to disagree, and this made Charles more bold to follow his own fancy. In 1670 the king sold himself to Louis XIV., making with him the secret *Treaty of Dover*, in which Charles promised to turn Catholic, and Louis promised to send French troops to England to

help him to put down any rebellion of his subjects. The only members of the Cabal who knew anything about this were two Roman Catholics. The rest were only told that the king had agreed to join France in fighting the Dutch, and that he was going to be more tolerant in religion. However, the secret soon leaked out, and men became very suspicious of Charles, and very jealous of the Catholics.



Walker & Cocheret

St. Paul's Cathedral, London.
(Built by Sir C. Wren between 1675 and 1710.)

8. In 1672 Charles again went to war against the Dutch. But this war was very unpopular. The English forgot that the Dutch were their rivals in trade, and honoured them for resisting the French king. The Cabal broke up in confusion, and Shaftesbury at once became the leader of the Opposition. In 1673 the king made the *Earl of Danby*, a Yorkshire nobleman, his chief

Danby.

minister. At home Danby followed in the lines of Clarendon, strengthened the Church and opposed toleration. He passed a law called the *Test Act*, which said that no one should hold office under the king, unless he took the Holy Communion according to the rites of the English Church. This was meant to exclude the Roman Catholics, and was therefore popular with nearly all Protestants. Danby soon made peace with the Dutch. He married the princess *Mary*, elder daughter of the Duke of York, to *William III. of Orange*, the *Stadholder*, or chief ruler, of the Dutch. This was a very popular match. As Charles and Catharine of Braganza had no children, and the Duke of York no son, Mary was, after her father and uncle, the king, the next heir to the throne. Though her father had turned Roman Catholic, Mary was a zealous Protestant. The young Prince of Orange, her cousin, was also a Protestant, and a bitter enemy of Louis XIV.

9. Danby was much hampered by Charles, who continued his intrigues with France, while his minister opposed that country. Louis grew so disgusted at this that he revealed the double dealing of king and minister to some of the English statesmen out of office. This increased the universal feeling of distrust. In 1678 Parliament threatened to impeach Danby, and soon drove him from power.

Fall of
Danby.

10. It was easier to get rid of Danby, since general alarm had been inspired by a story, which arose, in 1678, of a *Popish Plot*. A needy and knavish clergyman called *Titus Oates*, who had been turned out of the English Church for gross offences, went abroad and turned Roman Catholic. But he was such a rogue that the Catholics soon expelled him from their Church also. Oates now came home and pretended that he had again become a good

The Popish
Plot.

Protestant, being horrified at discovering that the Papists had formed a plot to slay Charles and make the Duke of York king. He was an unblushing liar, but nearly everybody believed his tale. He became a great man, lived sumptuously, and enjoyed a large pension. Other rogues saw that Oates had taken up a paying trade, and bettered his example by telling fresh lies about the imagined conspiracy. Soon all England was in a state of frenzied excitement. Innocent Catholics were sent to the scaffold on the testimony of Oates and other informers. Panic-stricken Protestant juries found them guilty without troubling overmuch about the evidence.

11. Shaftesbury cleverly used the panic for his own purposes. He boasted that he was the champion of Protestantism, and brought forward a measure called the *Exclusion Bill*, which proposed to deprive the Duke of York of the throne because he was a Roman Catholic. Between 1679 and 1681 there were three short Parliaments held, in all of which Shaftesbury could do what he pleased with the House of Commons. One Act, which he persuaded Parliament to pass, was a very wise measure. It was called the *Habeas Corpus Act*, and provided safeguards against people being imprisoned without lawful reason. But the thing that chiefly interested Shaftesbury at this time was the Exclusion Bill, which the Commons passed more than once with enthusiasm. However, there was one man who kept his head, and that was Charles II. He was too wise to set himself against public opinion, as his father would have done. He did not wish, as he said, to go on his travels again. He dissolved Parliaments, so as to prevent the Exclusion Bill being brought up to the Lords. But by yielding for a time to Shaftesbury, he gave him, so to say, enough rope to hang himself with. Gradually, as the panic died away, Shaftesbury

The Exclusion Bill and the Habeas Corpus Act.

lost ground. At last the House of Lords plucked up courage to reject the Exclusion Bill.

12. As in 1612, the nation was now divided into two parties, the friends of Shaftesbury and the friends of the king. The former were now called *Whigs* and the latter *Tories*. Both were to begin with contemptuous nicknames.

Whig is a Scottish word meaning sour milk, and was first given to the sour Presbyterians of Scotland, some of whom were then in revolt. *Tory* is an Irish word meaning robber. *Whigs* were therefore rebels, and *Tories* brigands and Papists. But few people knew what the names originally meant, and soon both parties were so proud of these meaningless titles that the names *Whig* and *Tory* have lasted ever since.

13. For a time civil war seemed likely between *Whigs* and *Tories*. But the violence and factiousness of the *Whigs* overshot the mark. Most Englishmen were determined there should be no more revolutions, and they thought the best way of preventing them was by backing up the natural heir to the throne. The selfish wisdom of the king helped on this state of feeling, and Charles deserves real credit for playing the part of a constitutional king in these trying years. Before long there was a strong *Tory* reaction. Shaftesbury fled to Holland, and died there. Unluckily, the *Tories* now behaved as badly as the *Whigs* had done.

14. In 1683 some of the *Whigs*, enraged at their defeat, formed a conspiracy to murder the king. From the place where it was concocted, it was called the *Rye House Plot*. But it was detected, and its discovery completed the ruin of the *Whigs*. The law courts were again misused to satisfy the vengeance of the conquerors. Two of the best of the *Whig* leaders were accused of having had a share in the plot. These were

Whigs and Tories.

The Tory reaction, and the flight of Shaftesbury.

The Rye House Plot, and the death of Charles II.

Lord Russell, son of the Earl of Bedford, and *Algernon Sidney*, an old republican of the Commonwealth time. The evidence against them was legally insufficient. Nevertheless, they were condemned and executed. But fear of the Whig plotters kept the Tories popular for the rest of Charles's reign. The king himself seemed once more as well liked as in the days of the Restoration. But, in 1685, death suddenly cut him off. Just before the end he was received into the Roman Church.

CHAPTER XXX

James II., 1685-1688

(Married (1) Anne Hyde ; (2) Mary of Modena)

Principal Persons :

James, Duke of Monmouth ; Judge Jeffreys ; Archbishop Sancroft.

Principal Dates :

1685. Succession of James, and Rebellion of Monmouth.

1688. James driven from the throne.

1. James of York now became James II. He was graver and more earnest than his brother, but not nearly so shrewd or so clear-sighted. James II.'s character and accession. Though he had many faults, he was honest in his love for the Roman Catholic Church, and had risked his throne rather than give up his faith. Despite his religion, he had been made king by the loyalty of the English Churchmen. Since the execution of Charles I., the Church had made a sort of religion of loyalty to the King. Her belief that it was God's will that the next heir must in all cases succeed, had defeated the Exclusion Bill, and now made James king. James had been very pleased with the Churchmen's trust in him. He told them that so long as they let him worship God after his own fashion, he would uphold all the rights of the English Church. Accordingly he kept on his brother's Tory ministers and ruled by their advice. A Parliament which met was strongly Tory, and gave him a large revenue for life. For a few months everything went well.

2. Unable to influence Parliament, the Whigs fell back on war. In 1685, *James, Duke of Monmouth*, an old whig ally of Shaftesbury, raised a revolt in the south-west of England. Monmouth's Rebellion. He was popular and brilliant, and soon gathered round him a large army of miners and ploughmen. At their head he marched from Lyme, where he landed, to near Bristol. But the king's



James II.

(From a Picture in the National Portrait Gallery.)

troops fell upon him at *Sedgemoor*, near Bridgewater. In the last pitched battle fought on English soil, Monmouth was defeated. Taken prisoner soon after, as he was hiding away, half-starved, in a ditch, he was soon beheaded. A terrible vengeance was wrought on his followers. *Jeffreys*, the cruellest of the judges, sent many hundreds to the scaffold. He did not try to be impartial, but condemned men

to death with brutal jests and sneers. The assizes, which he held in the West, were long remembered as the *Bloody Assizes*. The king approved of Jeffreys' cruelties, and made him Lord Chancellor. His throne was now stronger than ever.

3. James now changed his policy. He was indignant that men of his own religion could hold no office in the state. He tried to get the Test Act repealed, hoping that it would be the first step towards winning for the Catholics equal rights with the Protestants. But Parliament would not help him, believing that the Test Act was more than ever necessary with a Romanist on the throne. James angrily dismissed Parliament and his Tory ministers. He claimed that, though as king he could not repeal a law, he had what he called a *Dispensing Power*, which enabled him to stop the operation of a law in any particular case, and a *Suspending Power* by which he could for a time suspend a law altogether. The judges decided that he had both these powers, and he at once began to use them very freely. He gave posts in the army, the law, and even in the Church to avowed Roman Catholics. He forced Oxford and Cambridge to admit Catholics to privileges that only lawfully belonged to Protestant clergymen. He bitterly persecuted the Presbyterians in Scotland, and appointed a Romanist as Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, where he strove to win to his side the oppressed Irish Catholics. By such acts he made Protestants very indignant. But James had been told by many English Churchmen that all good Churchmen were bound to obey the king, and could not raise their hands against the Lord's Anointed. He believed, therefore, that he was safe with the Church, but he was soon undeceived.

4. There were not enough Roman Catholics to make a strong party, so James tried to unite the Protestant

Dissenters with them on the ground that both had suffered from the rule of the Church. He issued in 1688 a *Declaration of Indulgence*, in which he suspended all the laws that prevented Catholics and Nonconformists from worshipping after their own fashion. He ordered the Church clergy to read his declaration in their churches. Very few of them obeyed, and seven bishops, headed by Archbishop *Sancroft* of Canterbury, protested against the king's action. James sought to punish them, but the *trial of the seven bishops* ended in their acquittal. Every one rejoiced at their triumph. The Dissenters nearly all made common cause with the Church. James had followed in his father's footsteps, and had sought to evade the law which he dared not break. Punishment came upon him more quickly than on his father. It was too late now for kings to upset the law.

The Declaration of Indulgence.

5. James was an old man, and men had endured his rule because they thought that he would soon die, and that his daughter, the Princess of Orange, would then become a Protestant queen. But now a son, christened James, was born to the king. It was certain that the child would be brought up a Catholic, and it seemed as if the line of Popish kings would go on for ever. This was more than the English could endure. A few Whig and Tory gentlemen met together and asked Mary's husband, William, Prince of Orange, to come over and save the liberties of England and the Protestant religion. William accepted the invitation, and landed on 5th November at Brixham in *Torbay*, in Devonshire. A Dutch army came with him, but there was no need of foreign soldiers, even friendly ones. Every one deserted James. William marched straight to London and James fled to France. A Parliament met and declared the throne vacant. It drew

The fall of James II.

up what was called the *Declaration of Rights*, in which it denounced James's illegal ways. William and Mary accepted the declaration and were invited to occupy the empty throne. They were to be joint sovereigns, since Mary had a nearer title than her husband, and was more English in her ways. But all real power was to go to William. Early in 1689 William and Mary accepted the throne. They were not the heirs by blood, but king and queen by Act of Parliament. Their accession marks the end of the long struggle of king and Parliament. Parliament, already half victorious on several occasions, now made the crown dependent on itself, and thus became the strongest thing in the state.

CHAPTER XXXI

William III. and Mary, 1689-1702

Principal Persons :

Sophia, Electress of Hanover ; Graham of Claverhouse, Viscount Dundee ; Macdonald of Glencoe ; Louis XIV. ; Philip V., King of Spain ; James, the Old Pretender.

Principal Dates:

- 1689. Accession of William and Mary. Bill of Rights. Battle of Killiecrankie.
- 1690. Battle of the Boyne.
- 1692. Massacre of Glencoe. Battle of La Hogue.
- 1694. Death of Mary.
- 1697. Peace of Ryswick.
- 1701. Act of Settlement.
- 1702. Death of William III.

1. With the accession of William and Mary we reach the beginning of what may fairly be called the modern history of our country. Ever since that date Parliament has had supreme power in England. Having made William and Mary king and queen, it passed several new laws to make it impossible for any future king to behave as James had done. The chief of these was the *Bill of Rights* (1689), based on the Declaration of Rights. It declared the Suspending Power illegal, and enacted that Roman Catholics should no longer be allowed to reign over England.

2. The Revolution also put an end to the absolute ascendancy of the Church. In 1689 Parliament passed

a *Toleration Act*, giving the Protestant Dissenters liberty to worship in their own chapels. This measure is very important, since it put an end to the long-continued efforts, which nearly every party had made since the Reformation, to insist upon all Englishmen worshipping God after the same fashion. After this the more tolerant law led

The Tolera-
tion Act.



William III.

(From the Painting by Vollevens at Welbeck Abbey.)

gradually to the spread of the spirit of toleration, and many of those, who were excluded from the benefits of the Toleration Act, won virtual liberty of worship. But it took much more than another century before complete liberty of thought and worship were secured for all.

3. Parliament also took care to vote money to the king for one year only, so that from that day to this Parliament has had to meet every year to grant supplies. A few years later, in 1701, Parliament passed

the *Act of Settlement*, which arranged that if William and his sister-in-law Anne died without children, the throne should pass to the Protestant descendants of *Sophia, Electress of Hanover*, the only Protestant child of Elizabeth, Electress Palatine, the daughter of James I. It is through this law that the present king holds his throne.

The Act of Settlement.

4. William was a hard-working and able man, who was glad to wield all the power left to the king by law. He still chose his ministers freely, and as he hated the notion of being king of a party, he tried to divide office between the chief Whigs and Tories. But he gradually found that this system would not work. The Whig and Tory ministers quarrelled fiercely with each other. Besides this, the majority of the House of Commons was sometimes Whig and sometimes Tory, and always grumbled if the ministers were not of the same way of thinking as itself. As it had the power of the purse, it could make the king do what it liked by threatening to stop supplies. Very unwillingly, William was forced to choose as his ministers not the men he liked best, but the leaders of the party which the House of Commons preferred. His successors were not so clever as he, and were therefore more helpless. Bit by bit the system grew up which still exists. The king's ministers became his ministers in little more than name. The king still appoints the ministers, but he always has to choose such men as please the House of Commons. All the ministers are, therefore, more or less of the same way of thinking. The chief of them form what is called the *Cabinet*, that is, a small Council which settles all questions too secret or difficult for Parliament to deal with properly. This is called *Cabinet Government* and *Party Government*.

The Cabinet system and party government.

5. In the long-run the result of the Cabinet system was to take the control of government of the country from the king and give it to the House of Commons. Even under it, however, the king kept plenty of influence, and so did the House of Lords. But on all really vital matters the Commons, through their power of the

How our
Modern
Constitution
has grown
up.



Mary II.

(From the Picture by Netscher in the National Portrait Gallery.)

purse, could make their will prevail over king and lords alike. We must remember, however, that two hundred years ago the House of Commons was a very different body from what it is now. Nowa-

days nearly every grown man and woman have votes, so that the House of Commons really represents the people. We therefore call the modern Constitution a *democracy*, or a government by the people. But almost up to Queen Victoria's time the House of Commons was chosen by so few voters, that a few great landlords, many of them noblemen, largely decided who should be elected to it. The result was that for the one hundred and fifty years after 1689 our government was more of an *aristocracy*, or government by the nobles, than a democracy or monarchy. But the nobles ruled by controlling the House of Commons, and not by having seats in the House of Lords.

6. The Revolution had important results in Ireland. The Roman Catholics there backed up James, long after he had been driven from England. At last James himself went to Ireland with a French army. The Irish Catholics had been very badly treated in previous days, but they now revenged themselves by behaving equally cruelly to the Irish Protestants. However, the Protestants made a noble stand against them, especially at *Londonderry*, where they endured a long siege, suffering terribly from hunger and bad food, rather than surrender. At last King William crossed over to Ireland with an English army. In 1690 he defeated James at the *Battle of the Boyne*, and soon drove him from the country. The Catholics now showed the same heroism in resisting the enemy as their Protestant rivals had done before. *Limerick*, the last Catholic stronghold to hold out, was captured only after a very severe siege. *Protestant ascendancy*, as it was called, was now restored. The Catholics were treated worse than by Cromwell and Strafford. All power was taken from them, and the majority of them were reduced to abject poverty. Only Protestants had any share in ruling the land, and even they were strictly looked after by

the English. This state of things continued for nearly a hundred years.

7. In Scotland the course of events was like that in England. The Scots had been much disgusted with the rule of Charles II. and James II. The extreme Presbyterians rose several times in revolt. These were the men who were first called Whigs. But they were put down by force, and *John Graham* of Claverhouse, Viscount Dundee, was set over a force of horse to keep them in order. In 1689 the Scots gladly deposed James and chose William and Mary as their rulers. They now at last got rid of Episcopacy and made the Scotch Church Presbyterian, as it has been ever since. Scotland was now ruled much more in agreement with Scottish ideas than it had been in Stewart times.

8. Scotland had still many troubles to face. Dundee, after the fall of James II., had gone to the Highlands, where the Celtic tribes still lived a very free, picturesque, and disorderly life. Like Montrose forty-five years earlier, Dundee won over the clans to his side. A Highland army gathered round him to fight for King James, and marching on the Lowlands, won a battle at the pass of *Killiecrankie*. But Dundee was slain when leading the Highlanders to victory, and before long the clansmen went home. Great efforts were now made to pacify the Highlands. The chiefs were called upon to take oaths to William. One of them, *Macdonald of Glencoe*, neglected to do this. In 1692 a regiment of rival clansmen was taken to Glencoe, where the Macdonalds entertained them with Highland hospitality. Suddenly the soldiers fell upon the Macdonalds, and treacherously slew as many as they could lay hands on. This was the *Massacre of Glencoe*. William has been rightly blamed for it; but the worst guilt falls rather on his Scottish ministers.

9. Foreign policy was greatly altered by the Revolution. As long as the Stewarts were on the throne, England was too much divided at home to care much, and too weak to do much, in foreign politics. But William was, above all things, a European statesman. For nearly twenty years he had been doing his best to break down the power of Louis XIV. of France. He went to England because he hoped to use her strength against the French. He was not disappointed. Louis gave so much help to James that Englishmen cheerfully joined the war that now broke out against him. For nine years William was constantly fighting the French. He himself commanded the armies of English, Dutch, Spaniards, and Austrians that combined against the French in the Netherlands. He was not at all successful in winning battles, but he had a wonderful power of keeping his army together after it had been beaten. His stubbornness made French progress very slow. At sea England did much better, winning in 1692 a very complete victory over the French at the battle of *La Hogue*. At last peace was made in 1697 at *Ryswick*. War with France.

10. This was the first costly modern war fought by England, and William was not able to settle its expenses year by year. He was obliged to borrow money, and content himself with paying interest upon it. This was the origin of our *National Debt*, which soon swelled up to an enormous amount. For William's war with France was but the first of a series of struggles that lasted nearly one hundred and thirty years. As in the days of the Hundred Years' War, it again seemed natural for English and French to be quarrelling. The National Debt.

11. Queen Mary died in 1694, after which William reigned alone. As they had no children, the next

heir was Mary's younger sister, *Anne*. Mary was a very bright, gracious, and popular lady. William, though very able, was selfish, irritable, and ignorant of English ways, so that, though he did a great work for England, few Englishmen cared for him. His unpopularity gave the followers of his father-in-law a chance of reviving his claims. They were called *Jacobites* from *Jacobus*, the Latin for James. They were favoured by many of the Tories and High Churchmen who still believed in monarchy by divine right, and disliked William because he favoured the Whigs and the Low Church. Plots and conspiracies were formed to bring back James and to depose or murder William, but none of them were successful.

12. Before long William was again anxious to fight the French, for in 1700 Louis had won the throne of Spain for his grandson Philip, and William thought that the union of France and Spain would make Louis more powerful than ever. But he could not persuade the English to go to war. However, in 1701 James II. died, and Louis XIV., who had promised to acknowledge the Protestant succession, broke his word, and recognised his son as James III. This made Englishmen so angry that they allowed William to declare war. But a mishap to the king now suddenly changed the situation. When out riding, William's horse stumbled against a mole-hill and threw him. It was not a bad accident for a healthy man, but it proved fatal to William, who had long been in wretched health. The *Jacobites* hated him so bitterly that they used to drink the health of the 'little gentleman in velvet,' meaning the mole that had caused his death.

Death of
James II.
and William
III.

CHAPTER XXXII

Anne, 1702-1714

(Married George of Denmark)

Principal Persons :

Duke and Duchess of Marlborough ; Philip V. of Spain ; the Archduke Charles ; Louis XIV. ; Harley ; Saint John, Lord Bolingbroke ; Mrs. Masham ; Sophia, Electress of Hanover ; Newton.

Principal Dates :

- 1702. Accession of Anne.
- 1704. Battle of Blenheim and Capture of Gibraltar.
- 1706. Battle of Ramillies.
- 1707. Union with Scotland.
- 1708. Battle of Oudenarde.
- 1709. Battle of Malplaquet.
- 1710. Harley and Saint John form Tory ministry.
- 1713. Peace of Utrecht.
- 1714. Death of Queen Anne.

1. Queen Anne was a kind and good-natured lady, but narrow, obstinate, and dull. She was ruled by her friend the *Duchess of Marlborough*, a cleverer woman than herself. The queen and duchess called each other 'Mrs. Morley' and 'Mrs. Freeman,' so that there might seem no difference of rank between them. Now the *Duke of Marlborough* was a great general and a shrewd statesman, and the one man in England who was wise enough to carry on the work of William III. He was cold-hearted, selfish and greedy, but his private defects did not prevent him doing a great work for his country. Through his wife Marlborough ruled the queen. He

persuaded her to carry on William's war against the French. As powerful with Parliament as with the court, he became both the chief minister and the chief general.

2. The war, called the *War of the Spanish Succession*,



Queen Anne.

(After a Portrait by John Closterman in the National Portrait Gallery.)

lasted from 1702 to 1713. Its cause was the establishment of Louis XIV.'s grandson, Philip V., as King of Spain, when in 1700 the old line of kings descended from Philip II. had died out. All Europe had long been afraid of the

The War of
the Spanish
Succession.

power of France, and felt that if Spain, which had hitherto been opposed to France, joined with it, that Louis XIV. would hold so strong a position that the liberties of the rest of Europe would be in danger. Most powers, therefore, upheld against the French candidate the claims of the *Archduke Charles* of Austria, a son of the Emperor. England, Austria, Holland, and many smaller states joined in what was called the *Grand Alliance* against France and Spain.

3. Nothing great happened at first. If Marlborough had had a free hand, he would have accomplished more, but the allies were jealous of each other, and very slow. Marlborough often found it more difficult to coax and persuade his friends than to beat the enemy. However, in 1704 the French marched through Bavaria, and threatened to invade Austria. Marlborough was in the Netherlands, but he boldly led his armies a march of many hundreds of miles from Holland to Bavaria, where he suddenly appeared in time to save Austria. A great battle was now fought at *Blenheim*, where Marlborough won a complete victory. It was the first time that the French had been badly beaten since Louis XIV. had become king. Parliament gave Marlborough a large estate at Woodstock, in Oxfordshire, where was built a magnificent palace, still called *Blenheim House*, in which his descendants still live. Marlborough gained other victories in the southern Netherlands, the country now called Belgium. The first of these was *Ramillies*, in 1706, which resulted in the French and Spaniards being driven out of the Netherlands. But they came back again, and Marlborough had to win two more battles before he had thoroughly conquered that country. These were fought at *Oudenarde* in 1708, and at *Malplaquet* in 1709.

Marl-
borough's
victories.

4. In Spain the English and their allies were not

so successful. But one victory gained by our fleet in the same year as the Battle of Blenheim proved important. This was the capture of the rock of *Gibraltar*, in the south of Spain. It has been English ever since, and is very useful for us since it commands the narrow Straits of Gibraltar which connect the Mediterranean with the Atlantic.

5. The war was long, bloody, and costly As years



Battle of Blenheim.

(From an Engraving after a Picture by La Guerre at Marlborough House.)

went on, people in England began to wonder why peace was not made. Some said it did not much matter to England whether a Frenchman or an Austrian was king of Spain, and that it was useless going on fighting other people's battles for ever. The Tories gradually got quite tired of the war. In those days the Tories were opposed to England having much to do with European

The Tories
oppose the
war.

affairs, and hated successful soldiers and standing armies, fearing lest a victorious general might become another Cromwell. The Whigs, on the other hand, were in favour of a standing army, and believed that England ought to take a leading part in the politics of Europe. Marlborough had always been a Tory, but he now found his old friends would not support him heartily, and gradually went over to the Whigs. At last the ministry was entirely Whig. But the Whigs foolishly refused to make peace because they thought it was the interest of their party to go on fighting. This made many plain Englishmen opposed to them.

6. For some time the Whigs held power because of the queen's fondness for Marlborough and his wife. But now Anne quarrelled with the duchess, whose violent ways had long been hard to bear. The queen found a new Tory favourite named *Mrs. Masham*, who was much more amiable and discreet than the once beloved *Mrs. Freeman*. In 1710 a new election returned a Tory majority to Parliament, and the queen gladly dismissed Marlborough and the Whigs. A Tory Government was formed whose chiefs were *Harley*, a hard-working plodder, and *Saint John*, afterwards Lord Bolingbroke, a very clever, amusing, and brilliant man, who wrote and spoke beautifully, but who looked upon politics as an exciting game, and had few serious convictions. This ministry remained in power for the rest of Anne's life.

The Tory
ministry.

7. The chief work of the Tory ministry was to make peace with France. This was quite right in itself, for France had been sufficiently beaten, though the allies had failed to drive Louis XIV.'s grandson out of Spain. But the Tories were to blame for carrying on the war slackly and putting a dull Tory duke in command of our army

The Peace
of Utrecht.

instead of Marlborough. And it is possible that they might, if they had not been in such a hurry, have made much better terms with the French. However, in 1713 the *Treaty of Utrecht* was signed which ended the war. By it Philip was recognised as King of Spain. But the Spanish possessions in Italy and the Netherlands were handed over to the Archduke Charles, who had already



Duke of Marlborough (1650-1722).

(After a Painting by Jan Wyck in the National Portrait Gallery.)

become the Emperor Charles VI. England obtained, besides Gibraltar, several colonies of France and Spain, and very advantageous terms for her trade. In 1715 Louis XIV. died, having outlived his greatness.

8. In Queen Anne's days the Union between England and Scotland was completed. Since 1603 there had been a single ruler of the two kingdoms, but James I.'s wish to unite the two countries thoroughly had only been carried out by Cromwell, whose work, based on force and not on

The Union
with Scot-
land.

consent, lasted only a few years. But since the Revolution things had not gone well. The Scots remained very jealous of England, and were particularly angry that they were not allowed to take part in English trade. They therefore resolved to break the connection with England, and passed an *Act of Security* which said that the person, who after Anne's death



Sarah Jennings, Duchess of Marlborough.
(From a Portrait in the National Portrait Gallery.)

succeeded to the English throne, was not to be allowed to be King of Scots. This meant complete separation and constant war, as before 1603, between the English and the Scots. This was a sad prospect, but the only other settlement of the question was a more complete union. Anne's ministers now brought forward a scheme for union, and, though there was much prejudice on both sides, the *Act of Union*

was passed in 1707. The two Parliaments were joined into one, and henceforth Scotch peers and commoners sat with their English brethren at Westminster. Free trade between the two countries was secured, and the Scots henceforth had all the rights of Englishmen in trading with our colonies. But Scotland kept her own system of laws and her own Presbyterian Church. So even in union the smaller country retained those things in which she most differed from England. Though unpopular at first, this union on equal terms finally became a magnificent success.

9. Anne's health was fast breaking up, and it was known that the Electress of Hanover and her son were no friends of the Tories. Bolingbroke was a hot party man, and willing to do any thing to keep his friends in power. So he formed a plan for upsetting the Act of Settlement and bringing back the son of James II. to reign after Anne's death. Anne hated Sophia of Hanover, and would gladly have seen her half-brother succeed her. The real difficulty was that James—the *Old Pretender* as he was called—was a Catholic, and few wished to have a Catholic king. Harley became alarmed, quarrelled with Bolingbroke, and was turned out of office. Bolingbroke then hurried on his preparations, but before he was ready, Anne died. The old Electress Sophia had died a few months earlier, but her son George, Elector of Hanover, was quickly proclaimed George I.

10. During the Stewart period the progress that had begun with the great Elizabethan revival steadily continued. Even the fierce fighting of the great Civil War did very little to stop the growth of the country. Population increased slowly but steadily, especially in the towns. Yet the only really large town in those

The last
years of
Queen Anne.

The towns
and com-
mercial
progress.

days was *London*, which had perhaps nearly half-a-million inhabitants. The next were *Bristol*, the chief port, and *Norwich*, the chief manufacturing town; but neither of these had more than 30,000 people. The trading classes increased in numbers, wealth, and importance. Up to the end of the Tudor period, England had been almost entirely a country of farmers and graziers. It now became a commercial country as well. Our merchant-ships became more numerous, and our merchants more enterprising than those of any other land, and by the end of the seventeenth century the Dutch had lost their position of the greatest trading nation in Europe, and the English had taken their place. The Act of Union of 1707 enabled Scotland to enjoy the same commercial privileges as England, and at once the Scots fully shared with the English the work of increasing the wealth and resources of Great Britain.

11. The results of this progress were seen in the increase of comforts and conveniences of everyday life. Food became more varied and attractive. About the time of Charles II. the use of *tea*, *coffee*, and *chocolate* began, and did something to reduce the amount of strong drink consumed by the English. In London and the chief towns *coffee-houses* grew up, where gentlemen met to gossip, talk politics, and hear the news of the day. There were plenty of amusements, chief among them being the *Theatre*. The Puritans disliked the stage, and under the Commonwealth the theatres were shut up by order of the Government. They were reopened at the Restoration, though the plays then written for them were much less stirring and noble than were those written in the days of Elizabeth and James I. Dress, which was simple enough for the poor, remained very rich for the upper classes, and indeed became so fantastic and strange that the graver Puritans were

Social life in
the Stewart
period.

hardly to be blamed for trying to bring in a simpler style of garments. After the Restoration, the curious



A Gentleman.

(Showing Costume about the Time of Charles I.)



A Gentlewoman.

fashion arose of men shaving the hair off their head and wearing in its place hot, expensive, and uncom-



A Countryman.

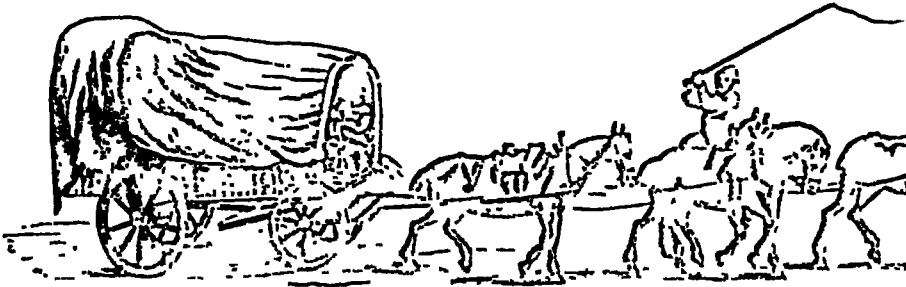
(Showing Costume of the Time of Charles I.)



A Countrywoman.

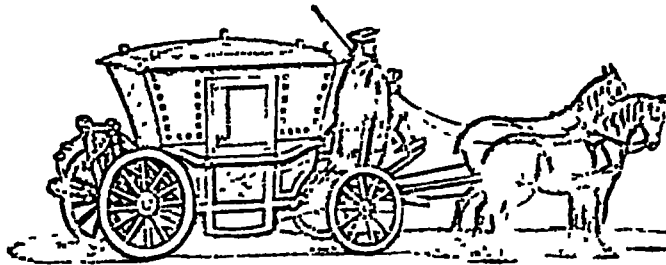
fortable wigs. Even ladies wore 'puffs' of false hair, and set off their beauty by sticking little black patches

on to their faces. Travel became more common, and besides private carriages, stage-coaches, which conveyed all comers from place to place, were now for the



Wagon of the Second Half of the Seventeenth Century.

first time used. But the coaches of the Restoration seldom travelled more than fifty miles a day. The roads were very bad, and highwaymen constantly



Coach of the Latter Half of the Seventeenth Century.

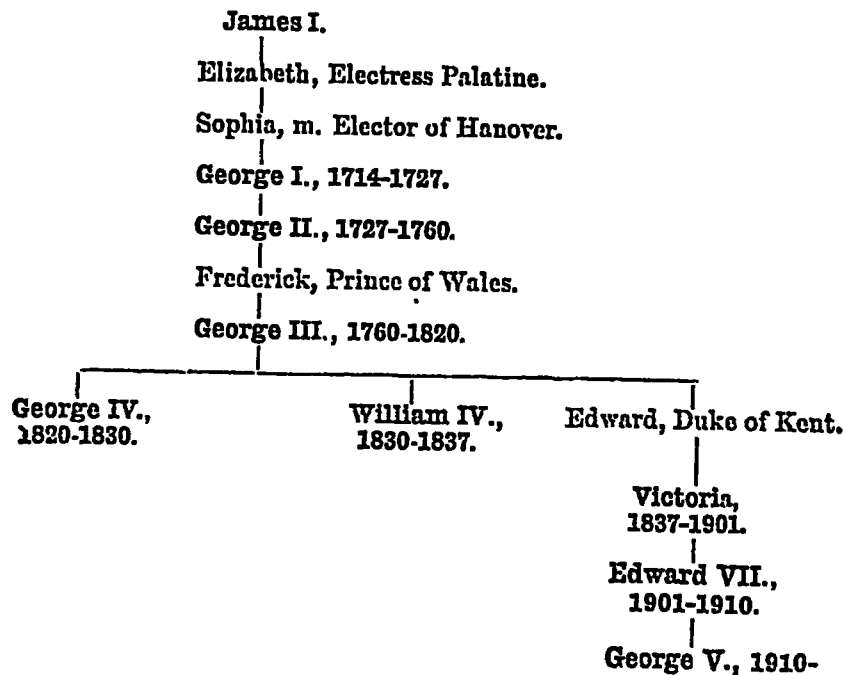
stopped the coach and robbed the passengers. But the stage-coaches were expensive, and poor people had either to walk or to travel in slow and jolting wagons.

12. The French now had very great influence on our manners, tastes, and fashions, and every fine gentleman thought that he ought to copy as much as he could the example set by Louis XIV. As the spirit of the writers of the age of Elizabeth died away, our English writers began to look to France for models and examples. This was particularly the case after the Restoration. After the death of *John Milton*, the

The manners
and litera-
ture of the
Restoration.

stern Puritan poet, who, in his blindness and old age, protested against the follies and wickedness of the men of the Restoration, poetry became less important than prose. By the days of Queen Anne a new and more familiar style of prose-writing grew up, which was easier to understand and more like ordinary conversation. More people read, and more people wrote, but they did not think so closely or read so deeply as the scholars of an earlier age had done. Another feature of the time was the great growth of the study of natural science, whose most famous English upholder was the Cambridge professor, Sir Isaac Newton.

GENEALOGICAL TABLE OF THE HOUSE OF HANOVER.



BOOK VII .

THE HOUSE OF HANOVER, 1714-1901

CHAPTER XXXIII

George I., 1714-1727
(Married Sophia Dorothea of Celle)

Principal Persons :

The Old Pretender ; the Earl of Mar ; Sir Robert Walpole.

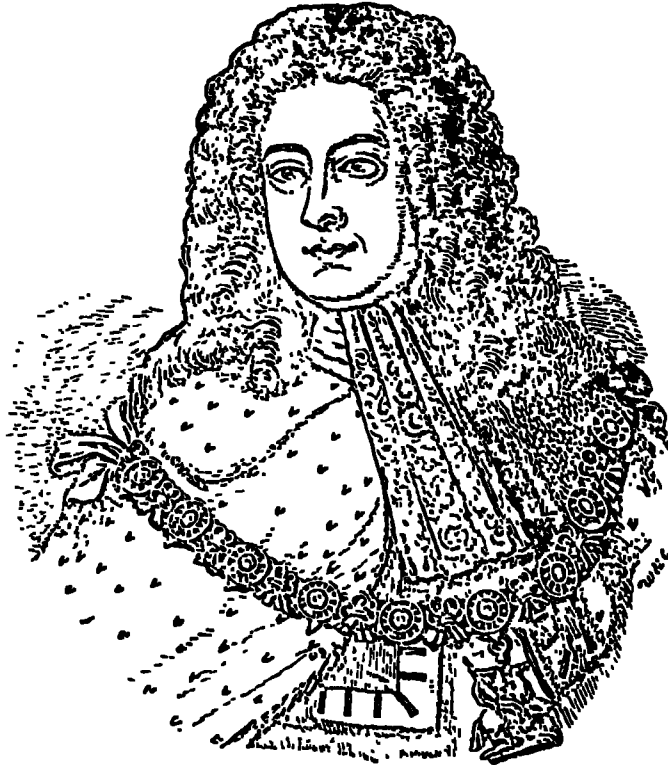
Principal Dates :

- 1714. Accession of George I.
- 1715. The Jacobite Revolt.
- 1718. Septennial Act.
- 1720. South Sea Bubble.
- 1721. Walpole Prime Minister.
- 1727. Death of George I.

1. George I. was an elderly German who never even learned our language. He had been a good despotic ruler in Hanover, and he understood foreign politics. But he was heavy and slow, and eager to get places and pensions for his German friends. He was made king because he was a Protestant, and to keep out the Pretender. Knowing that the Tories had done their best to deprive him of the throne, he drove them from power, and trusted only to the Whigs. Bolingbroke, whose greediness had ruined his cause, ran away to France, and it was more than fifty years before the Tories came back to office. They

The House
of Hanover,
and the
long Whig
rule.

were now as unpopular with the country as they were with the kings. But foreign rulers could not exercise much power, as they knew so little what was going on. So under the new house the full effects of the Revolution of 1688 were worked out. Under the



George I.

(From a Picture in the National Portrait Gallery :
Painted after Sir G. Kneller.)

long Whig rule *Cabinet* and *Party Government* were firmly established.

2. In 1715 the Jacobites stirred up a rebellion. In England it was a failure. A few fox-hunting squires rose in Northumberland, and joining some insurgents from the Scottish Lowlands, marched southwards as far as *Preston* in Lancashire, where they surrendered after a poor attempt at fighting. A much more formidable insurrection broke out in the Scottish Highlands. There

The Jacobite
revolt of
1715.

the chiefs of the clans were the only rulers of the remote mountain glens, whose simple populations spoke no tongue but Gaelic, and cared nothing for what was said or done at London or Edinburgh. The Celts of the Highlands were splendid swordsmen, and the fierce rush of a Highland charge generally put to flight the slow-moving, pig-tailed, and pipeclayed soldiers of the time. While the Lowland Scots and the English had no love for their Hanoverian king, many of the Highland chiefs were passionately devoted to the exiled Stewarts. Accordingly when, in 1715, the *Earl of Mar* raised the standard of James III., the clansmen flocked to his camp. Had Mar been a clever man he might have done great things. But he dawdled idly at Perth while regular soldiers were hurried up from the south. When it was too late he advanced, and won a doubtful victory at *Sheriffmuir*. But no Highland army could keep long together, and many of the clansmen went home. At last the Pretender himself came to Scotland, but he was dull, shy, and melancholy, and had neither courage to lead nor enthusiasm to stir men's hearts. The disgusted army slowly melted away, and the Pretender quickly went back to France. The chief result of *the '15*, as it was called, was to show the strength of the House of Hanover.

3. A further small consequence of the Jacobite rising was the passing, in 1716, of an Act called the *Septennial Act*, which permitted Parliaments to last for seven years. Since William III.'s time Parliaments had only been allowed to sit for three years, but it was felt unwise to have an election during the rebellion, and so the length of Parliament was increased. This Act is worth remembering since it remained the law till 1911.

The
Septennial
Act.

4. Since the Revolution British trade had increased wonderfully. The years after the Peace of Utrecht were a time of great prosperity, and many people

made so much money that they did not know what to do with it. They were therefore anxious to find investments in which they could put their savings safely and draw large interest from them.

The South
Sea Bubble.

Now a new company was started called the *South Sea Company*, which was given such rights of trading with the Spanish colonies in South America as had been given to England in the Treaty of Utrecht. It was a sound company, but people imagined that it would make much greater profits than it possibly could. They therefore offered enormous prices for a share in it, sometimes giving £1000 for a share that at first had only been worth £100. Finding how foolish many people were, rogues started companies that were merely traps for the unwary. Yet for a time investors were found ready to put their money into anything. But this could not go on for ever. Some of the worst companies failed, and their collapse caused general alarm. Every one was now as eager to sell as he had been to buy. But the value of shares, even in sound companies, came down with a run when there were plenty of sellers but no buyers. The result was a general panic. Many people lost all their money, and the country was plunged into deep distress. The *South Sea Bubble*, as it was called, had been blown out so big that it had burst. This happened in 1720.

5. The losers now found that some of the ministers had been bribed by the South Sea Company, and raised an outcry against them. Luckily there was a wise Whig statesman named *Sir Robert Walpole*, who a few years before had quarrelled with the other ministers and gone out of office. Walpole was known to have the best head for figures of any in the country, and it was felt that if anybody could restore credit it was he. Accordingly, in 1721, the Government was changed, and Walpole was made the head of a new ministry. So well did he do

Walpole's
ministry.

his work, that he remained in place for more than twenty years. However, in 1727, George I. died when on a visit to Hanover. He was succeeded by his eldest son, George II., with whom he had long quarrelled fiercely.

CHAPTER XXXIV

George II., 1727-1760

(Married Caroline of Anspach).

Principal Persons :

Frederick, Prince of Wales ; Sir Robert Walpole ; the Empress Maria Theresa ; Frederick the Great, King of Prussia ; Charles Edward, the Young Pretender ; the Duke of Cumberland ; Henry Pelham ; Thomas Pelham, Duke of Newcastle ; William Pitt ; John Wesley ; Admiral Byng ; General Wolfe ; Robert Clive.

Principal Dates :

- 1727. Accession of George II.
- 1738. Beginning of the Methodist Movement.
- 1739. War with Spain.
- 1742. Fall of Walpole.
- 1740-1748. War of the Austrian Succession.
- 1743. Battle of Dettingen.
- 1745. Battle of Fontenoy.
- 1745-1746. The last Jacobite Revolt.
- 1754. Death of Henry Pelham.
- 1756-1763. The Seven Years' War.
- 1757. Battle of Plassey.
- 1759. Capture of Quebec.
- 1760. Death of George II.

1. George II. was a fussy, hot-tempered man, a shrewd judge of character, and a brave soldier. He

George II. was small-minded and mean, but true to his
and his friends, and devoted to his clever wife,
family. *Caroline of Anspach*.

He had long disliked Walpole, but by her advice he kept him in office. Though a thorough German, George talked English fairly, and took more interest in his kingdom than

his father. After the fashion of his house he was on bad terms with his son *Frederick, Prince of Wales*.

2. Walpole was still the leading statesman. He was very prudent and careful. He managed business very well, and was particularly successful in finance. He was anxious that the ministers should all be of the same way of thinking, and naturally thought that his own way was the best. He kept severe discipline among those who held

Walpole
Prime
Minister.



George II.

(After a Portrait by T. Hudson in the National Portrait Gallery.)

places under him, and drove out of office all who would not agree with him. He was the first English minister who was called *Prime Minister*. Before his days the king had taken the chair at cabinets, but it was no use George I. doing so, since he could not understand what was going on. No later king

ever attended ministers' meetings, so somebody was wanted to take the chief place. Walpole was only too glad to have as much power as he could, and it was found so convenient to have one minister superior to the rest that ever since there has always been a Prime Minister.

3. Walpole knew that many members of Parliament would not support him unless they were bribed, and took good care that they should get the money or the places that they wanted. Walpole's home policy. He also understood how to manage elections, and was not scrupulous as to how he conducted them so long as he could get his man in. By such devices he kept the House of Commons under control. But he used power as he thought would be best for his country. Above all, he loved peace. He kept peace between parties at home, and made the people so prosperous that they grew quite contented with the Hanoverian kings. Walpole disliked grand plans and new laws. His motto was, 'Let sleeping dogs lie.'

4. There were several wars in Europe while Walpole was minister, but he managed to keep England out of them. In one year of war he Walpole's foreign policy. boasted that though ten thousand men had been slain in battle, there was not one Englishman among them. He was the only statesman in those days who kept friendly with France. But in 1739 he was forced into declaring war with Spain by the clamour of the merchants who wished to force the Spaniards to give them more chances of trade with Spanish America. But he took little pains to carry it out actively. He was denounced for his slackness, and in 1742 was driven from office.

5. Before the fall of Walpole a war had broken out called the *War of the Austrian Succession*. It began in 1740, when the Emperor Charles VI. died,

leaving no son. The old emperor had wanted his daughter *Maria Theresa* to succeed him to all his dominions. But several powers thought that the accession of a helpless girl gave them a good chance of stealing some of the Austrian territories. France and Spain were among these, and so was a rising new state in North Germany named *Prussia*, now ruled by its famous king, *Frederick the Great*. England sympathised with *Maria Theresa*, and after *Walpole's* fall did a good deal to help her. The result was that our war with Spain became mixed up with this war about her inheritance. In 1743 George himself led the British army to victory at *Dettingen* in Germany. It was the last battle in which an English king himself took the field. But in 1745 the French won a hard-fought battle at *Fontenoy* in the Netherlands over George's second son, the *Duke of Cumberland*. The issue was long doubtful, but at last victory was secured by the fierce charge of a brigade of exiled Irish Catholics, forced by the cruel policy of England to take the pay of France. Peace was made in 1748.

6. This war revived the hopes of the Jacobites. France once more favoured their cause, and James, the Old Pretender, though still alive, was now thrown into the shade by his son *Charles Edward*, called by his friends the Prince of Wales, and by most Englishmen the Young Pretender. Charles Edward was much better able to arouse enthusiasm than his father. He was handsome, gracious, and enterprising, though he lacked more solid qualities. He was too eager to wait until the French gave him help, and in 1745 landed with a few companions in the Western Highlands, and called upon the clans to follow him. The Highlanders loyally responded to his appeal. He marched straight to the Lowlands and took up his quarters in Edinburgh.

The War of
the Austrian
Succession.

The Jacobite
revolt of
1745.

Few Scots raised a hand against him, since, though they cared little for a Popish prince, they hated the Union, and were indifferent to the House of Hanover. Moreover, most of the regular British army was fighting the French in the Netherlands. However, a force was hastily collected and sent against the bold Pretender. Charles marched with his Highlanders to *Prestonpans*, not far from where Somerset had won the Battle of Pinkie. The clansmen drew their broadswords, and rushed amidst the droning of bagpipes and fierce Gaelic battle-cries upon George's soldiers, who fled in a disgraceful panic.

7. Charles now invaded England, hoping that the Jacobites would rally to him. He marched through Cumberland, Lancashire, and Derbyshire.

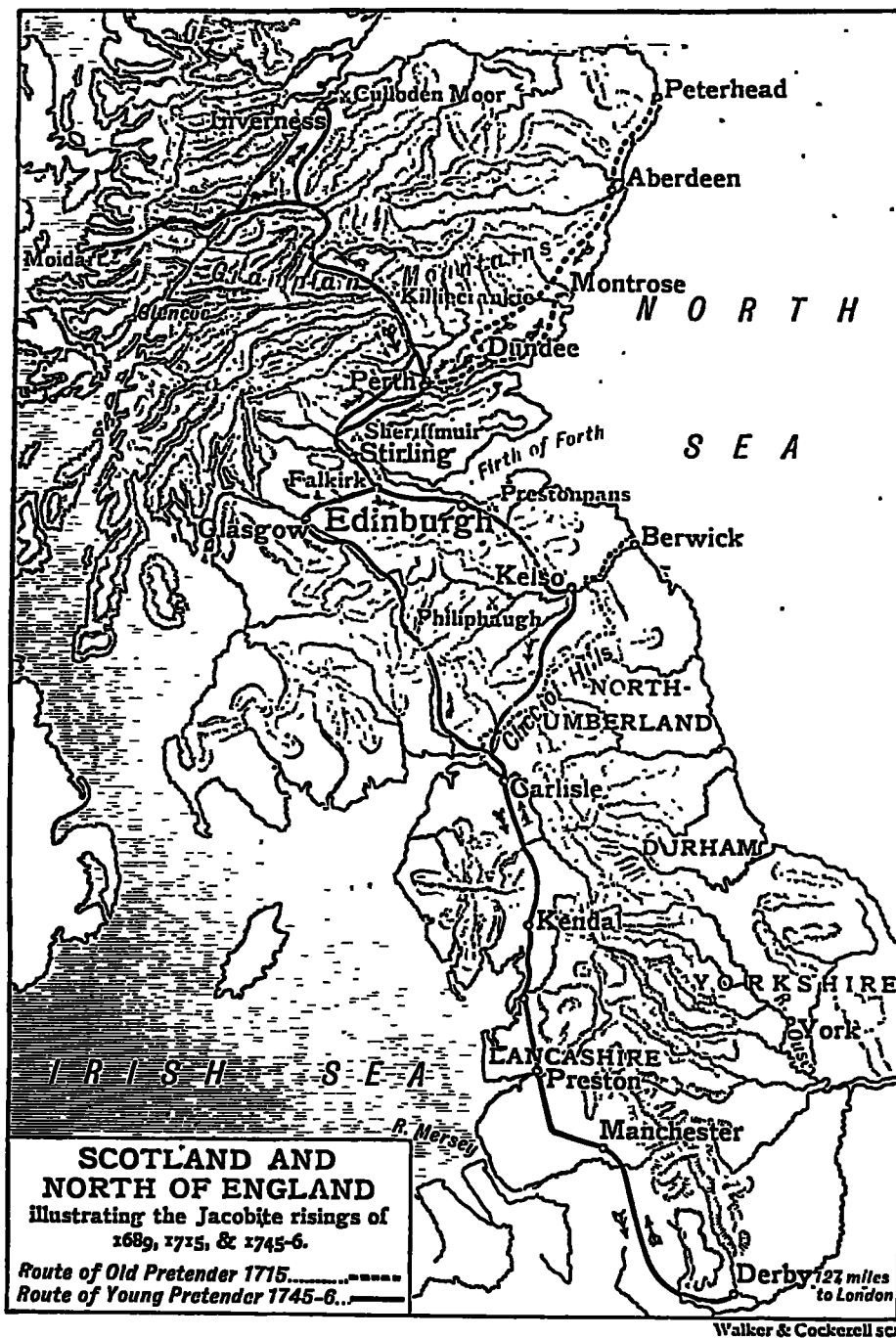
The march
to Derby.

As he passed along, the people stared at him and his barefooted, kilted Highlanders, but did nothing either for him or against him. In Manchester a few Lancashire Catholics formed a small regiment on his behalf. But these were the only recruits he got south of the Border. At Derby Charles lost heart. He turned backwards when not much more than a hundred miles from London, and retreated safely to Scotland. Then the British troops fell upon the footsore and weary Highlanders at *Falkirk*, but got beaten for their pains.

8. The Duke of Cumberland now took up the command, and Charles fled northwards before him. In

The Battle
of Culloden.

1746 was fought at *Culloden Moor*, near Inverness, the last real battle on British soil. Experience had taught the regulars how to withstand the Highland charge. The infantry fixed their bayonets and reserved their fire until the Highlanders were close up to them. Then they poured in deadly volleys. The clansmen still fought desperately, but were utterly beaten. This was the



end of the last Jacobite revolt—the *revolt of the '45*. Cumberland behaved so brutally that he won the name of 'Butcher.' Charles Edward escaped to the Continent after strange adventures. He had better have died on the field, for he afterwards became a drunkard and lost all influence. With him ended the unfortunate House of Stewart. The Government broke up the clan system in the Highlands. Before long the most desolate parts of northern Scotland were made as peaceable as Lothian or Middlesex. Some of the fiercer spirits were enlisted in new Highland regiments which have done such magnificent service ever since to the British Empire. One cannot help feeling sorry for the fate of the Highlanders, and Britain lost much that was poetical and picturesque when their disorderly freedom was abolished. But it had to go.

9. During the war the brothers Pelham became chief ministers. The elder, *Thomas Pelham*, Duke of Newcastle, was a foolish, fussy, incompetent man, whose only claims to be a minister were his duchy, his skill in managing men, and his cunning in intrigue. The younger brother, *Henry Pelham*, who was Prime Minister, was much abler than the duke, and was nearly as good a business man as Walpole. So long as he lived, the strife of parties was once more hushed. When he died in 1751, the old king prophesied that he would have no more peace.

10. The age itself was as dull as were the Pelhams. Men prided themselves on their reasonableness, their good sense, their kindness, and their freedom from excitement. The time was very prosperous. Trade was increasing, and Britain had now become the greatest commercial nation in the world. Her ships were on every sea, and her merchants and tradesmen were piling up great

The Pelham
ministry.

The Age of
Reason.

fortunes. As wealth grew, people lived more comfortably, and were much less quarrelsome, bigoted, and narrow-minded than they had been fifty years earlier. Men were proud of their reasonableness and freedom from prejudice. On this account the eighteenth century is often called the *Age of Reason*. Men now thought enthusiasm an evil thing, and had lost their faith in great ideals. The best statesmen were clear-headed, commonplace men of business. The chief teachers of religion were equally prosaic and uninspiring. But in contrast to these, two great Englishmen strove with all their might to turn their countrymen's minds to higher things. These were *William Pitt*, the loftiest of eighteenth-century statesmen, and *John Wesley*, the founder of the Methodist movement.

11. Pitt began his public life as one of the opposition to Walpole. He did not belong to one of the great Whig families, and he was never good at business or skilful in wirepulling. But he ^{William Pitt.} spoke with wonderful eloquence, and was high-minded, pure, and noble. He was a thorough patriot, and trusted the people rather than the scheming politicians of Parliament. He had not much power over the House of Commons, but the English people believed in him and loved him, calling him the *Great Commoner*. He took office under Henry Pelham, but on the Prime Minister's death in 1754 quarrelled with Newcastle, and went into opposition. A very confused period now followed. Newcastle was the exact opposite of Pitt in every way, and Pitt looked with great scorn on his bribes and his jobbery. But Newcastle was so narrow and greedy that he could not keep long in office. Pitt then tried his hand, but failed, because he had not sufficient support in Parliament. A new war was now breaking out, and it was necessary for England to have a strong Government. It was at last arranged, in 1757, that Pitt and Newcastle should be joint-ministers. Pitt

gave the nation faith and courage, and carried on the war. Newcastle transacted the daily business, and managed all the bribery. This ministry remained in office for the rest of George II.'s life, and no Government in all our history has ever done greater things.

12. Wesley did for religion what Pitt did for politics. Both Churchmen and Dissenters had become easy-going and indifferent. And outside their influence ^{John Wesley and the Methodists.} lived great masses of the people sunk in ignorance and vice. Wesley was a clergyman of the Church of England who set up, first at Oxford and afterwards in London and all over the country, little societies devoted to works of piety and charity. The members of these bodies lived such regular and methodical lives that they were nicknamed the *Methodists*, and soon began to call themselves by that name. It was in 1738 that Wesley first began his work on a large scale. For many years he had no notion of separating himself from the Church. But he gradually drifted apart from it, partly because it looked coldly on the fervour of the Methodists, and partly because Wesley was so fond of having his own way that he disliked any outside interference. Before long the Methodists became one of the greatest of religious bodies, both in England and America. But Wesley's influence went beyond his own followers. He taught that religion was not so much an affair of the head as of the heart, and his earnestness raised the whole tone of English religious life.

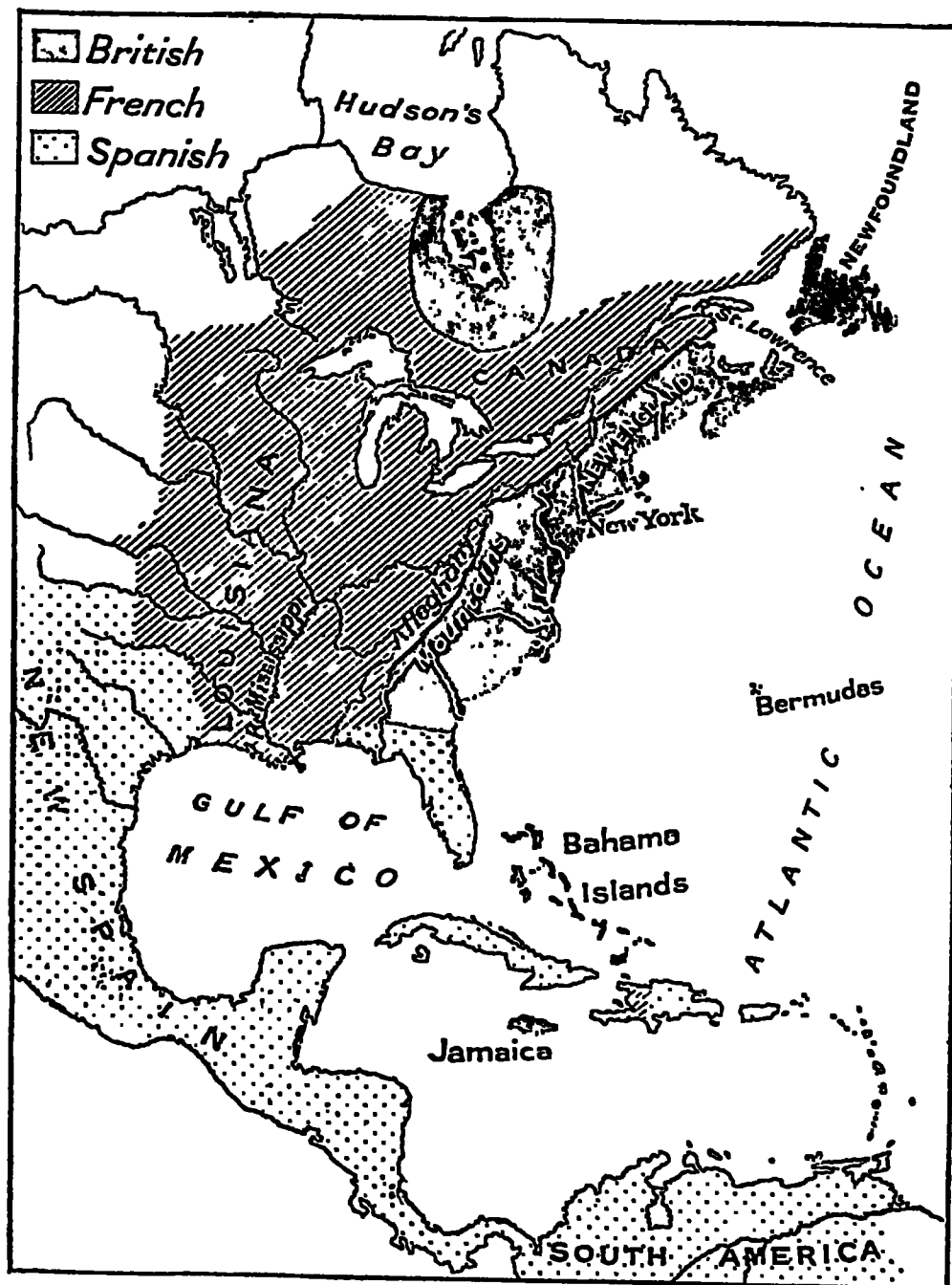
13. In 1756 a new war began which lasted until 1763, and is known as the *Seven Years' War*. It started through the rivalry of England and France ^{The English and French in America.} in America and in India. We have seen how the English set up a large number of colonies in the eastern parts of North America. They were now thirteen in number, the last new one, *Georgia*, having been recently established and named after

George II. But the French had also set up colonies in North America. One of these was *Canada*, along the Lower St. Lawrence, and another was *Louisiana*, along the Lower Mississippi. The French now formed a scheme of joining Canada and Louisiana by a series of forts, and of thus shutting up the English in the country between the Alleghany Mountains and the sea. If this design had succeeded, the whole history of America would have been altered. There could never have been the present English-speaking United States, ranging from the Atlantic to the Pacific. At first the French seemed likely to prevail. Our settlers soon began to resist the French advance, but, though the English were the more numerous, the French were the better soldiers, and had many Red Indians in their pay. The English, therefore, got the worst of the early fighting.

14. In the same way English and French began fighting in India. Both England and France had in those days nothing but a few trading-stations in India, but as in America, the French were very active. They were jealous of the English success in trading, and began to intrigue against them with native princes of India. The French found that by drilling Indian soldiers or *Sepoys* after the European fashion, they could make them fight as well as Europeans, who were, of course, hard to get in India. As in America, the French began by getting the better of the English. In 1756 their ally, the Nabob of Bengal, captured the British settlement of Calcutta. He thrust about a hundred and fifty prisoners in a small dark room, afterwards known as the *Black Hole of Calcutta*. In the course of one hot night, nearly all these unfortunate victims perished of heat, thirst, and suffocation.

The English
and French
in India.

15. As a result of all this war broke out, in 1756, between France and England. It soon became a Euro-



NORTH AMERICA IN 1756.

WALKER & COCHRELL, DEL.

pean as well as a colonial war. France had joined with her old enemy Austria, and several other powers, in attacking Frederick the Great, King of Prussia, whose successes had made all Europe jealous of him. Frederick had no ally save England, so that England and Prussia had to fight nearly all Europe.

Beginnings
of the
Seven Years'
War.

16. The war began with disasters on every side.



Lord Chatham.
(After a Picture by R. Brompton.)

Even on the sea England was not successful. In the Mediterranean Admiral *Byng* ran away from the French without so much as fighting. The Government shot Byng for his cowardice. The French said that they did it to encourage the other commanders.

Admiral
Byng
shot.

17. It was now that Pitt and Newcastle joined together. Pitt was as confident in himself as in his country. 'I know,' he said, 'that I can save this country, and I know that no one else can.' He soon inspired our soldiers and sailors with his own enthusiasm. He had a wonderful skill in picking out the right men to be his generals and admirals. Some of our finest soldiers and sailors

Pitt saves
England.



Wolfe.

(From the Painting by Schenk in the National Portrait Gallery.)

were brought to the front by his wisdom and judgment. Before long British victories wiped out the memory of defeat. Frederick of Prussia was helped in his heroic struggle against overwhelming odds. The French, who had overrun Hanover, were defeated in 1759 at the Battle of *Minden*, and driven across the Rhine. French colonies were seized all over the globe. But the

greatest of the English successes were the conquest of Canada and the conquest of Bengal.

18. In 1759 Pitt sent *General Wolfe* to capture *Quebec*, the capital of Canada. The city stands on the top of steep cliffs, which are washed by the rivers St. Lawrence and St. Charles. The conquest of Canada. Wolfe climbed up the cliffs by night, and drew up his troops on the *Heights of Abraham*, a plain just outside the town. In the battle that followed Wolfe himself was slain. But before his death he learned that the French were utterly defeated. Quebec fell, and before long all Canada was conquered by the English.

19. The fortune of war in India was changed by the genius of *Robert Clive*. He had been a clerk at Madras, but during the earlier war with France had turned soldier, and showed a wonderful The conquest of Bengal. power of exciting the enthusiasm of his men. In 1757 he went to Bengal at the head of a little army. There he won the *Battle of Plassey* over the huge hosts of the Nabob. The result was the conquest of Bengal and the beginning of the British Empire in India.

20. In the midst of these glories the old king died, in 1760. His foolish son Frederick was Death of George II. already dead, and Frederick's son now became George III.

CHAPTER XXXV

George III., 1760-1820

(Married Charlotte of Mecklenburg)

Principal Persons :

William Pitt, Earl of Chatham ; Frederick the Great of Prussia ; Lord North ; General Burgoyne ; Admiral Rodney ; General Elliott ; Charles James Fox ; William Pitt the Younger ; Warren Hastings ; Louis XVI., King of France ; Admirals Jervis and Nelson ; Napoleon Bonaparte ; Edmund Burke ; Grattan ; Joseph Bonaparte, King of Spain ; Arthur Wellesley, Duke of Wellington ; the Marquis Wellesley ; George, the Prince Regent.

Principal Dates :

- 1760. Accession of George III.
- 1763. Seven Years' War ended.
- 1765. The Stamp Act.
- 1770-1782. Lord North's Ministry.
- 1775-1783. War of American Independence.
- 1775. Battle of Bunker's Hill.
- 1778. Capitulation of Saratoga.
- 1781. Capitulation of York Town.
- 1783. Coalition of Fox and North.
- 1783-1801. Ministry of William Pitt.
- 1788. Trial of Warron Hastings began.
- 1789. Outbreak of the French Revolution.
- 1793-1802. War against the French Revolution.
- 1796. Napoleon wins his first great victories.
- 1798. Battle of the Nile.
- 1800. Union of Britain and Ireland.
- 1802. Treaty of Amiens.
- 1803-1815. War against Napoleon.
- 1805. Battle of Trafalgar.
- 1806. Death of Pitt and Fox.
- 1807. Slave-Trade abolished.
- 1807-1830. The long Tory rule.

- 1808-1814. Peninsular War.
- 1809. Battle of Talavera.
- 1814. Napoleon banished to Elba.
- 1815. Battle of Waterloo.
- 1810-1820. Regency of George, Prince of Wales.
- 1820. Death of George III.

1. George III. was the first Hanoverian king born in this country, and was proud of being a Briton. He was not quick, and had not been well educated. But he was very persevering and dogged. When he once made up his mind to get a thing, nothing could turn him from his purpose. He lived a very simple life, enjoying the

George III.'s
character
and policy.



George III. in his Coronation Robes, after Allan Ramsay.

country, and farming, and caring little for pomp and show. He meant to do what was best, and was honourable and religious. He was fond of power, and very eager to have as much authority as the law left him. In particular he wanted really to chose his own ministers. He hated the Whigs, be-

cause he thought they had taken this power from him.

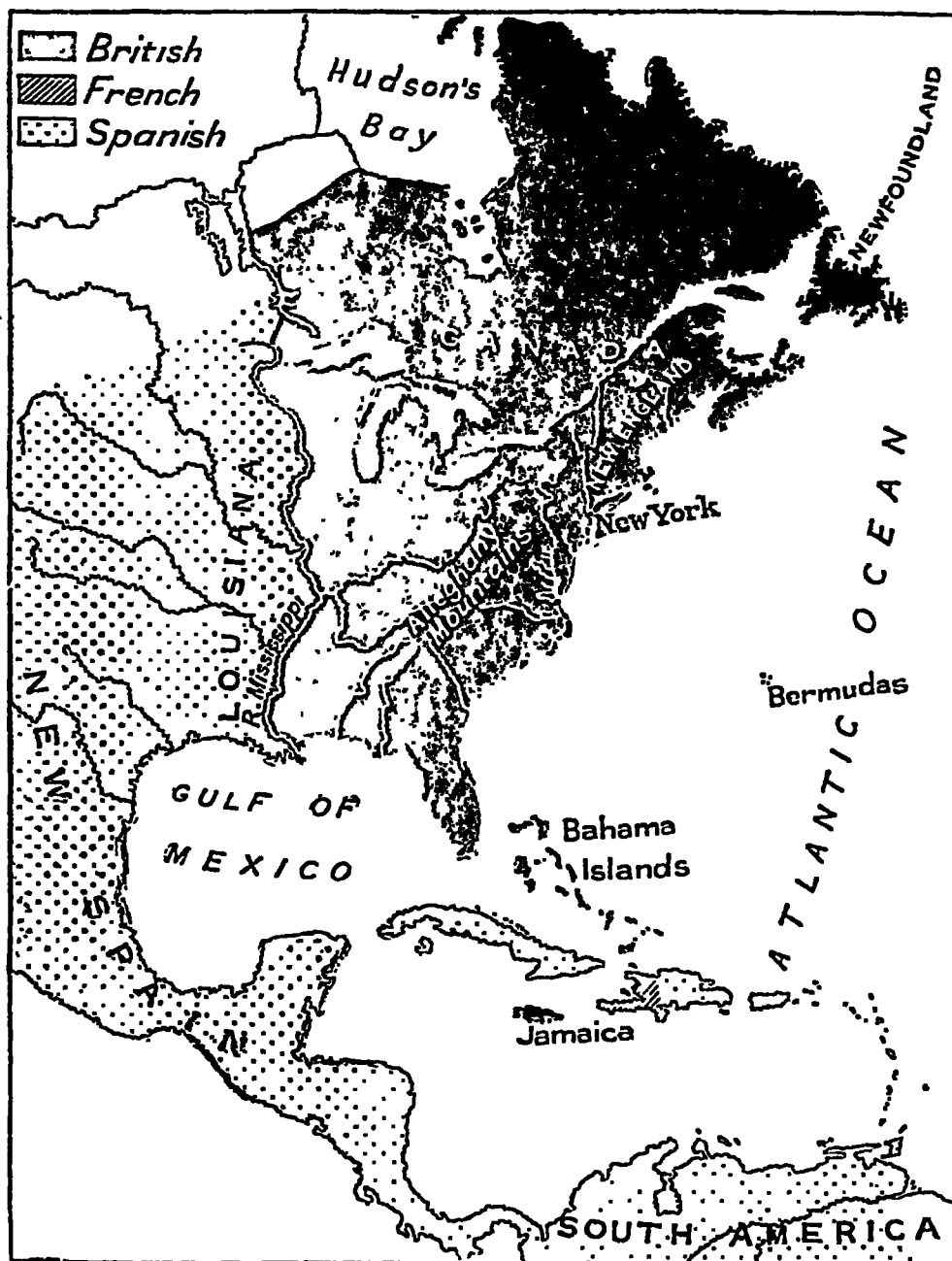
2. Now the Whigs were not popular. They were a close body of nobles and gentry, very greedy for office, and very narrow. Had George been wise, George III.'s first struggles the mass of Englishmen would have gladly joined him in attacking the Whigs. Unfortunately, George did not go the right way to work. He not only made the Whigs angry, but disgusted most of his subjects. Pitt shared George's dislike of the Whig nobles, but George never saw the greatness of Pitt, hating able men as a rule, and preferring to be served by dull people who would do what he told them. He turned both Newcastle and Pitt out of office as soon as he could, and made peace with France in 1763. There was no harm in peace being made. England kept Canada by it, and got all that she had been fighting for. But the way that George settled the treaty disgusted his ally, Frederick of Prussia. However, George's chief wish was to get more power at home, and he knew that he could only do so when there was peace. Yet the different ministries he chose were not really able to do the work of the Pitt-Newcastle ministry. They were very much divided, and none of them lasted very long. Even Pitt could not keep together a ministry now. George made him Lord Chatham, and at last gave him office. But Chatham was in bad health, and soon resigned. At last, in 1770, George got a minister after his own heart. This was *Lord North*, the first Tory Prime Minister since the days of Anne. North was so easy-going that he let George rule as he pleased. George liked this so much that he kept North in office until 1782.

3. George's blunders caused much trouble at home, but the worst mistakes he made were in dealing with our American colonies. During the Seven Years' War the thirteen English colonies in North America had

helped in driving out the French from Canada. But the war had cost a great deal, and George thought that the Americans ought to pay something towards it. This was reasonable enough, American taxation. but the right way to get this done would have been to ask the colonists themselves to make a contribution. Instead of this a *Stamp Act* was passed in 1765 by the British Parliament, which ordered that Americans should use stamped paper on which they were to write legal documents, as was the case in England. But the Americans said that they ought not to be taxed by the Parliament at London, because they sent no representatives to it. They raised so great an outcry that the Stamp Act was soon repealed. Unluckily a few years later another attempt was made to tax America. Chatham was then chief minister, but he was away from London and very ill. Though he had always opposed the Stamp Act, the other ministers passed a law that tea and other articles taken into America should pay a duty to the British Government. The Americans were more angry than ever, and refused to pay the new duties. Chatham soon got well again, resigned office, and backed up the Americans. When the first shiploads of tea that were to pay the new duty arrived at Boston in America, a number of men dressed up as Red Indians boarded the ships in the harbour, and threw all the tea into the sea. Parliament tried to punish Boston for this act, and America resolved to resist.

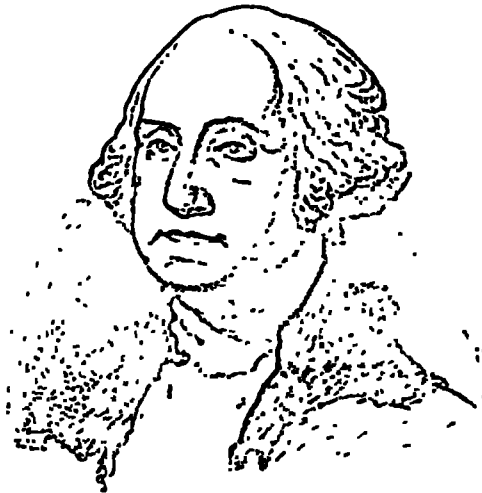
4. The blame was by no means all on one side. It was stupid of George and his ministers to force the Americans to pay taxes without asking their leave. But there were some Americans who wanted to be independent of England, and did their best to make their grievances seem bigger than they really were. The truth was that neither the Americans nor the British

The causes
of the
American
War.



NORTH AMERICA IN 1763.

took a really broad view of the situation. The only man who did so was Chatham. He was enthusiastically on the side of the Americans in resisting the Stamp Act and the other taxes. But he gloried in the fact that nearly all North America had become subject to British rule, and he thought that it was the most important thing of all that the British race should all keep together in a single state under a single king. He was grieved to hear how easily the Americans forgot that they were Englishmen in their hatred of



George Washington.
(After Gilbert Stuart, Boston Museum.)

George and his ministers. But few listened to Chatham either in America or in Britain.

5. The Americans now chose a sort of Parliament, called a Congress, in which all the thirteen colonies were represented. They raised troops, and in 1775 a serious battle took place between them and the British soldiers at *Bunker's Hill*, near Boston. After this the Americans issued a *Declaration of Independence*, in which they declared that the thirteen colonies would be no subjects of King George any longer, but an absolutely free

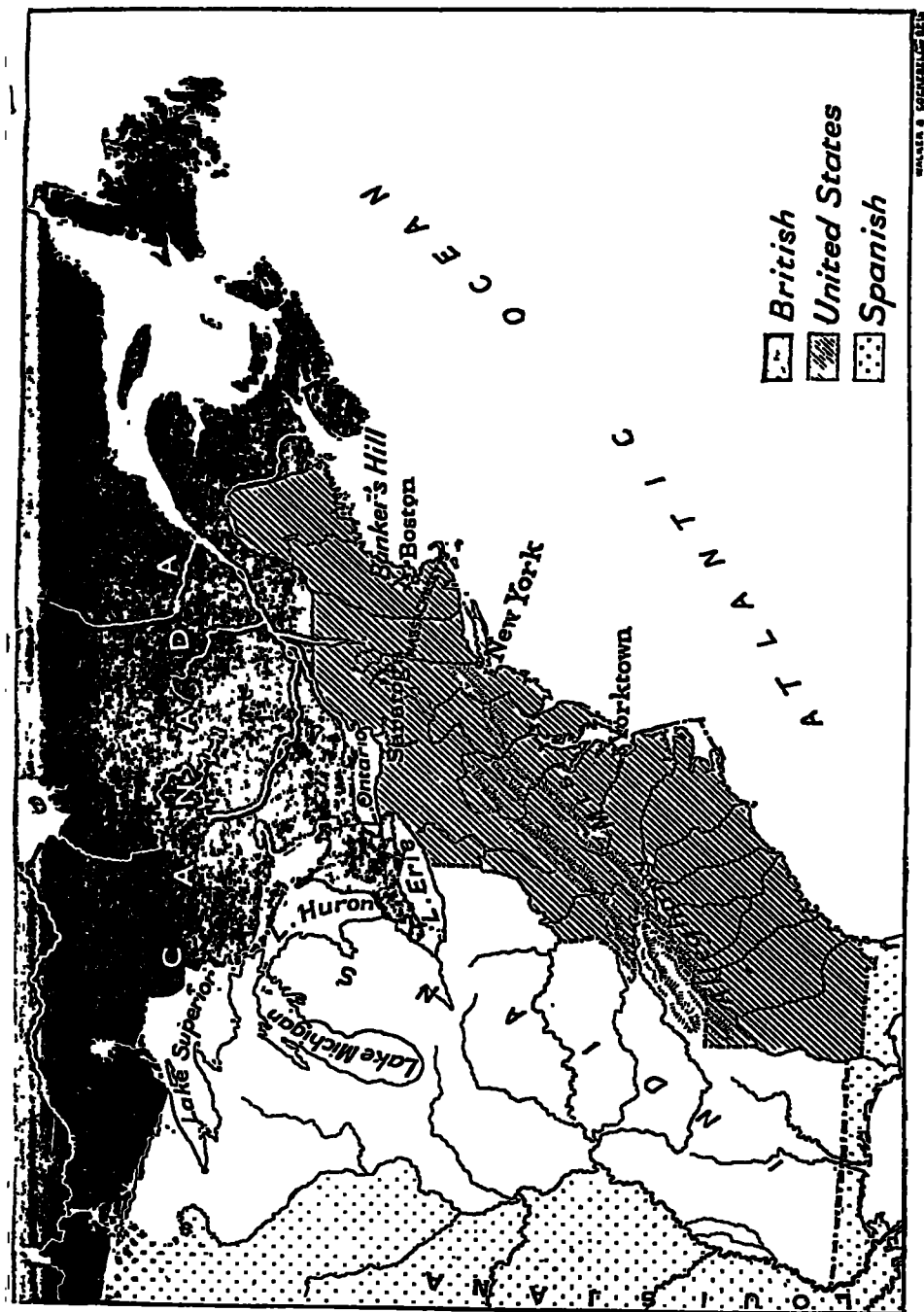
The Declara-
tion of Inde-
pendence.

people. After this it was no use negotiating. Lord North, when too late, tried to smooth over matters, but the Americans would not go back on what they had done. At last, in 1778, they won a great success by forcing the British army commanded by *General Burgoyne* to surrender at *Saratoga*.

6. The worst sides of the quarrel now began to show themselves. Foreign nations, like France and Spain, which had been beaten by Britain during the Seven Years' War, were delighted to hear that the English who lived in America had given up all connection with the English who still lived in the old country. They rejoiced at the weakening of the British race. They professed to feel great sympathy for the Americans, and began to send them help. After *Saratoga* France thought it was safe to make an alliance with America.

7. Chatham was mightily indignant that France should have stepped in between Great Britain and her colonies. He was now dying, but he managed to crawl down to the House of Lords to deliver the last of his speeches. In it he protested very strongly against any recognition of the independence of America. It was not that he wished to check American freedom. But he saw clearly that a united British race would be freer than one divided against itself, and he was deeply grieved that the British Empire, which he had done so much to form, should thus be rent in twain. A few days afterwards he died. Had King George trusted him, or if Chatham had been easier to work with, America and Britain need not have parted company.

8. Spain, Holland, and other countries followed the example of France. England had soon not only to fight her own revolted sons, but to struggle against half Europe. So far off as in India there was a great effort made to throw off her empire. For a time it



NORTH AMERICA IN 1783.

looked as if the day of England was over. Though North and George struggled bravely, they were not far-seeing and inspiring enough to conduct the war as wisely as Chatham would have done. But the pluck and doggedness of our soldiers and sailors carried things through somehow. After many disasters, the great *Admiral Rodney* won a naval victory in the West Indies which gave us the command of the sea once more. As soon as they went to war with England, the Spaniards besieged *Gibraltar*, hoping to win it back from the English. But the British garrison, under the brave general *Elliott*, managed to hold out against great odds. At last, when England won once more the command of the sea, she was able to send reinforcements, and so Gibraltar was saved. Even in India the French tried to drive out the English, but *Warren Hastings*, the Governor-General, managed to defeat them and their native allies. But a second English army surrendered in 1781 to the Americans at *York Town*. It was clear that America was lost, and it was no use trying to win it back. In 1783 peace was made by which England acknowledged the independence of the *United States of America*. Despite the great odds against us, we came well out of the war with our foreign enemies.

9. Before the end of the American War, North had resigned. A period of great confusion now ensued. For a time George was forced to give office to his enemies the Whigs, but he soon drove them out again. But now *Charles James Fox*, the new Whig leader, formed a *Coalition* with North the Tory. George had to admit the Coalition into office, but he at once tried to get rid of it. For this purpose he turned to Chatham's son, *William Pitt the Younger*, a young man of four-and-twenty, who had already made himself famous by his speeches, and was

England
against
Europe and
America.

The Coali-
tion and its
failure.

worshipped by many by reason of his name. Pitt, like his father, did not love the Whigs, and believed that the king ought to choose his ministers freely. He now taught George how to get rid of the Coalition and yet make himself popular with his people. He took office though there was a strong majority against him in the Commons. But soon a strong feeling of sympathy arose for the plucky young minister and the stubborn and homely king. In 1783 a general election gave Pitt a majority, and showed that the friend of the king was also the favourite of the electors. This popularity



Charles James Fox.
(From the Mezzotint after Sir J. Reynolds.)

continued. Pitt was Prime Minister from 1783 to 1801, and only gave up office then at his own desire. The victory of George and Pitt was also a triumph for the people. King and people united could defy the Whig nobles. Chatham had had the people with him as much as his son, but he had never had the king. He

had therefore been obliged to make terms with the Whigs whom his son had successfully defied.

10. The younger Pitt was not a dazzling genius like his father. Unlike Chatham, however, he was businesslike and clear-headed, and could work easily with others. He was a shrewd financier, a wise and liberal ruler, who always wished to do what was best for his country. He desired to make many great reforms, but he was

The rule of
the younger
Pitt.



William Pitt.

(From the Portrait at Apsley House.)

rather too much inclined not to persevere with his projects if he met with much opposition. He was the first Prime Minister who thought that the way of electing members of Parliament should be changed so as to make the Commons represent the nation better. Unluckily his friends supported him so little that he dropped the proposal which he brought forward for *Parliamentary Reform*. Pitt took great pains to win foreign alliances for England, so that she should not stand by herself as she had done during

the American War. At the same time he made a treaty with France that immensely increased the trade between France and England. Under him the country became exceedingly prosperous, and peace was preserved for more than ten years.

11. Pitt also carried a Bill for the better government of India, where, following in the footsteps of Clive, *Warren Hastings*, the great Governor-General, both by his victories and his skill as an organiser, had built up the wonderful Indian Empire, which has been growing ever since, and nowadays takes in nearly all

Warren
Hastings in
India. His
impeach-
ment.

India. A few years later Hastings was accused by the House of Commons of oppressing and maltreating the Hindoos. His *impeachment*, or trial before the House of Lords, which began in 1788, was a very long one, but at last he was acquitted of the main charges. Violent and high-handed Hastings doubtless was, but the English showed little gratitude to him for his great services to his country. However, George III. always stood his friend.

12. Great changes were now coming over the country. Up to George III.'s reign Great Britain had been a land of farmers and merchants, and its manufactures were small. Some brilliant discoveries were made which made it possible

The age of
Inventions.

to manufacture goods much more easily and cheaply than before. Such were the *spinning-jenny*, which made it possible to spin yarn more quickly and cheaply; the *power-loom*, which did the same for weaving yarn into cloth; and, above all, the *steam-engine*, which enabled all machines to be driven more regularly and at less cost than by water or hand power. Moreover, better roads were made, and canals were dug, so that the goods could be more easily taken from place to place.

13. Before long Britain became a great manufacturing

country, sending its goods to all the world. Population grew, especially in the north, where large manufacturing towns rose rapidly wherever there was coal, or iron, or cheap communication with the sea. The methods of manufacture were now changed. Up to now, goods had been made on a small scale by workmen in their own cottages. This was called the *Domestic System* of manufactures. But now the *Factory System* grew up, by which cloth was woven and iron cast in huge buildings called factories, where many hundreds of workmen were employed. The result was that there was much greater inequality of wealth, and the number of the population increased enormously now that there were so much greater opportunities of finding work. All these changes, which made our country the first manufacturing nation in the world, have been sometimes called the *Industrial Revolution*. But though more money was made in England, and more people lived in it, this growth of population brought many troubles with it. The poor increased in numbers, and were very badly cared for. Trade was sometimes slack, and so many workmen fell out of employment. Neither masters nor men in the new manufacturing towns had any voice in returning members to Parliament. Many of the workmen were so wretched and badly treated that they had little reason to be proud of their country or to stand up for her in her day of trouble.

14. These changes were still going on in England when, in 1789, there broke out a movement called the *French Revolution*. Since the great days of Louis XIV. things had been going steadily to the bad in France. The kings were careless despots. The poor paid huge taxes, while the rich were let off very lightly. The clergy and nobles had all sorts of oppressive privileges from

Britain
becomes
a great seat
of manu-
factures.

The French
Revolution.

which the masses suffered. The American War had cost France so much that the country had become bankrupt. At last things fell into such a wretched state that something desperate had to be done. The French king, *Louis XVI.*, meant well, but was not wise enough to act rightly. However, in 1789 he summoned an assembly of his people, which called itself the *National Assembly*. This body, like our Long Parliament, took everything into its own hands. It abolished all the oppressive privileges of the clergy and nobles. It took away a great deal of the king's power. It set up a new system of government, not very different from our English Constitution. But the new system worked badly. Louis XVI. was always intriguing against it, while an extreme party of reformers grew up which wanted still further changes. At last the king was taken prisoner, tried, and beheaded. A Republic was proclaimed in France, and the most thoroughgoing lovers of change got possession of power. The period of their rule is called the *Reign of Terror*, since they sought to frighten everybody into obeying them by violence. Thousands of Frenchmen were beheaded besides the king and queen.

15. At first England was in sympathy with the French Revolution. Before long, however, opinion changed. The execution of the king and the Reign of Terror spread alarm all over Europe. Things looked more dangerous since the French urged all other nations to follow their example, and there were plenty of people in England, especially in the new manufacturing towns of the north, who were so dissatisfied with the existing state of things, that they might easily have done so. Austria and Prussia went to war against France, and in 1793, after the execution of Louis XVI., France declared war against England.

England and
the French
Revolution.

16. For nearly nine years England and France

were at war. Pitt, so successful in peace, did not prove to be a fortunate war minister, and the French won many victories over us and our allies. As time went on, France forced many of the continental powers to make peace with her and take up arms against us. Before long we were fighting the Dutch and the Spaniards as well as the French. But if we did not

The war
against the
French
Revolution.



Group of Sailors.

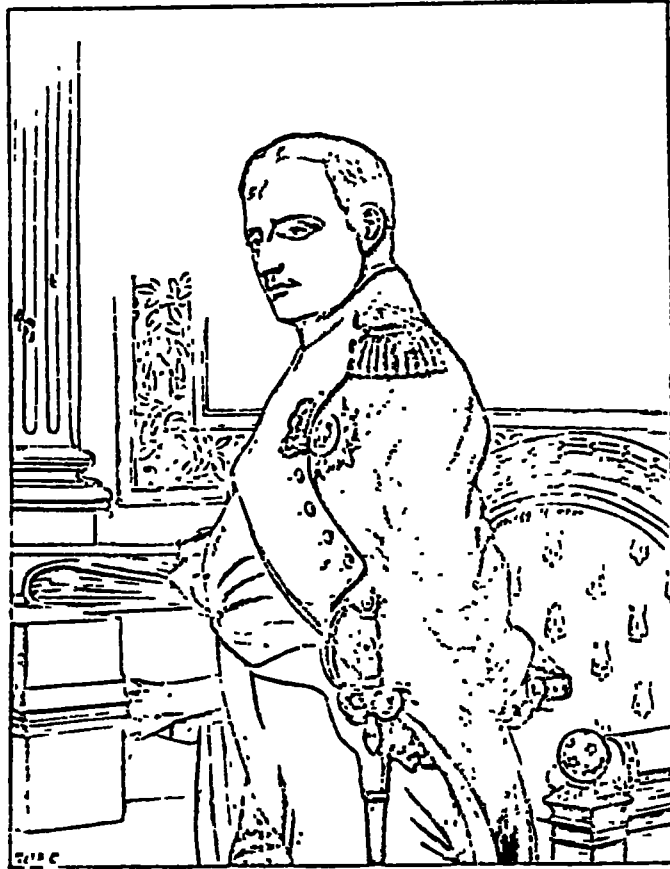
(From a Picture by J. S. Copley, R.A., of Admiral Duncan receiving the Dutch Admiral on H.M.S. *Tenerable* after the Battle of Camperdown, in 1797. The Figures were painted from life.)

do well on land, we managed to triumph at sea. There the *Battle of St. Vincent* was won in 1797 by Admiral Jervis, and the *Battle of the Nile* won in 1798 by Admiral Nelson.

17. Victory at sea did stave off invasion, but could not prevent the French doing what they liked on the Continent. The Reign of Terror had now long been over. A Corsican artillery

The Treaty
of Amiens.

officer, named *Napoleon Bonaparte*, had since 1796 been winning brilliant victories for the French. Then there happened exactly what had occurred in our own civil wars of the seventeenth century. Bonaparte, the



Napoleon Bonaparte.
(After the Painting by Paul Delaroche.)

successful soldier, became, like Oliver Cromwell, the strongest man in his country. Before long he upset the Government and made himself the despot of France. Just as Cromwell drove out the Long Parliament, so did Bonaparte expel the French Assembly. In each case the victorious general ruled the country by the sword, though Bonaparte did not show the honesty and moderation that Cromwell did in

England. At first Bonaparte called himself First Consul, but before long he changed his title and became Napoleon, Emperor of the French. Then, having got supreme power in France, he was anxious to rest for a time. He therefore made peace with his various enemies. In 1802 England concluded peace with him in the *Treaty of Amiens*.

18. Pitt had to fight the French Revolution in England as well as on the Continent. There was great alarm lest the ideas of the French should get a firm hold in this country. Very few now ventured to speak openly in favour of the French. All the Tories followed Pitt in his war against the new ideas. So also did most of the Whigs, who at first had been so enthusiastic for them. But in the days of the Reign of Terror the majority of the Whigs, headed by the famous orator and writer, *Edmund Burke*, became even more violently excited against the French than the Tories had been. However, Charles James Fox remained true to his old enthusiasm for the Revolution. But, as in the case of the American War, he showed so little patriotism that he became very unpopular. The Whigs lost ground immensely because they were thought not to be good Englishmen. But Fox had more right on his side when he protested against the stern measures now passed in England against those who wished to imitate the French. Even to ask for reform of Parliament was now looked upon as a revolutionary demand, though Pitt himself had once brought forward a Reform Bill. But the real reason why there was no revolution in England was that people were better off than they had been in France, and were therefore less tempted to upset everything than the French had been.

19. Ireland was also a great trouble to Pitt. Things were by no means so bad in Ireland as they had been early in the eighteenth century, though there was

still much that was very unsatisfactory. The system set up in the days of William III. had, however, broken down. In the days of the American War the Irish Parliament had demanded that it should be made quite independent of England, and had obtained what it asked for in 1782. The leader of the Irish was the eloquent Grattan, and the independent Irish Parliament is therefore often called *Grattan's Parliament*. But though now able to exercise more power than it had done before, the Parliament in Dublin remained a Protestant Parliament, and therefore was by no means friendly to the Catholic Irish. However, it did much better for them than earlier Governments had done, and repealed the hardest of the stern laws against them. But in other ways Grattan's Parliament did not manage well. It made few attempts to improve the wretched condition of the peasants, who even in good years could hardly get enough to eat. Pitt was very anxious to make Ireland more prosperous, and did several wise things for it, but he was not allowed to go so far as he wished.

20. After the outbreak of the French Revolution a society was set up in Ireland called the *United Irishmen*, which invited the French to invade Ireland. This came to nothing, but in 1798 a dangerous rebellion broke out, inspired by the United Irishmen. All sorts of cruelties were perpetrated by the rebels, but before long they were defeated at *Vinegar Hill*, near Wexford. Then the revolt was stamped out with equal cruelty. The rebels had done their best to ill-treat the Protestants, and now the victorious Protestants had an ample revenge.

21. Pitt saw that the way to make Ireland peaceful was to set up an impartial rule which would keep the Irish from fighting with each other. He therefore

Ireland under
Grattan's
Parliament.

The United
Irishmen
and the
Rebellion of
1798.

proposed the union of the Irish and the British Parliaments, and sought to make the Roman Catholics favourable to it by admitting them to offices and to Parliament. This was called *Catholic Emancipation*. He so far succeeded that the chief opposition to the union came from the Protestants, who still controlled the Parliament in Dublin. This opposition he could only overcome by lavish bribery, but by this means he carried the *Act of Union* through the Irish Parliament in 1800. But when it came to Pitt fulfilling his promises to the Catholics, the king stopped the way. Some of the bigoted Irish Protestants had persuaded George that to admit Catholics to office would be breaking the oath to uphold the Church which he had taken when he became king. Pitt was so much annoyed at this that in 1801 he resigned his office. But George's triumph had very evil results. Union without Catholic emancipation was but a one-sided measure, and the Catholics, who otherwise might have welcomed it, became more disgusted with the union than the Protestants had been. In few things did George do more harm than in spoiling Pitt's plan of an equal union.

22. Pitt was not long out of office. The Emperor Napoleon soon picked a quarrel with England, and war with France, which had only ended in 1802, began again in 1803. Napoleon was now at peace with all Europe, and thought that it would be a splendid chance of attacking England by itself. He collected an army in the ports of northern France, and nothing but Nelson and the fleet kept Britain from invasion. The danger was now so pressing that there was a great demand that Pitt should once more be minister. In 1801 he was again in office, and showed wonderful energy in preparing to resist the French. He persuaded Austria and Russia to join England in fighting Napoleon, but the

The Union
with Ireland.

The war
against
Napoleon.

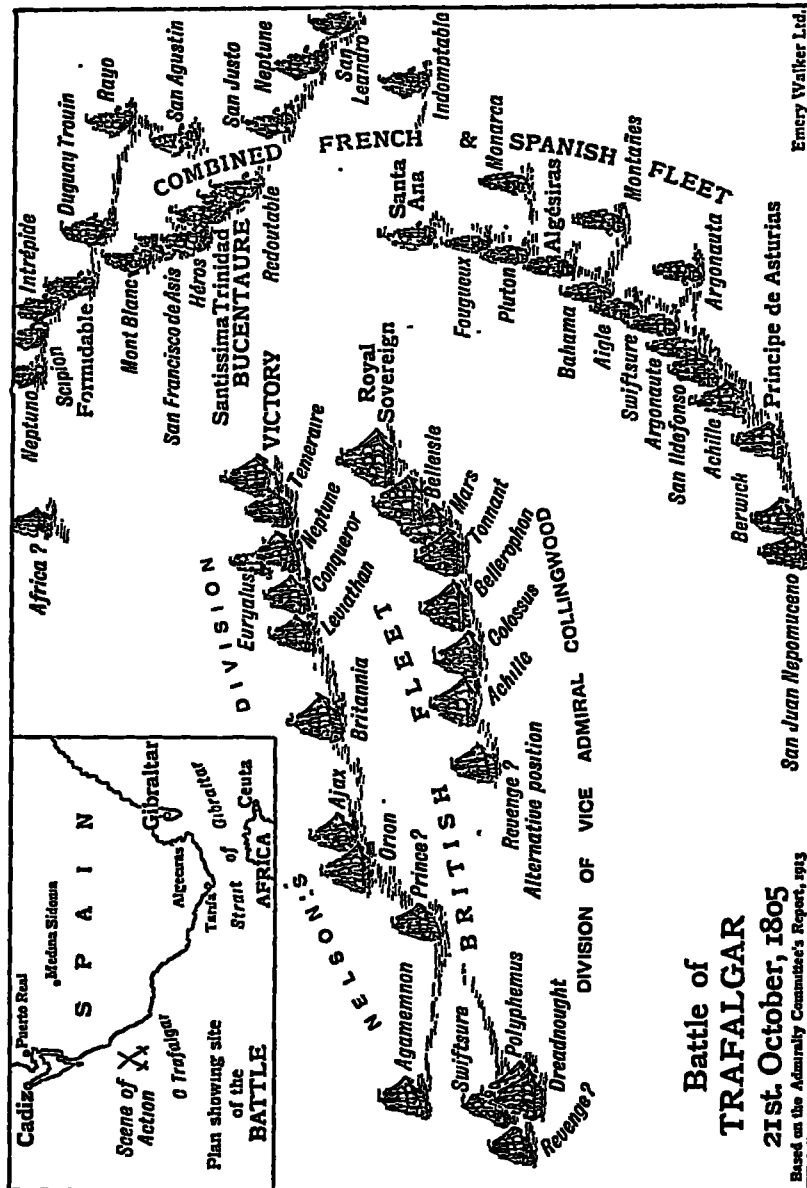


Trafalgar, off the coast of Spain, in 1805. The enemies' fleet, which was stronger than the British, was arranged in the form of a crescent. Nelson split up his fleet into two squadrons, which sailed right against the French and Spaniards and broke them into three divisions. As Nelson was leading the northern line in his flagship, the *Victory*, he was struck down by a bullet from a French man-of-war that lay close alongside. But he lived long enough to learn that his men had won a complete victory. Nelson's work lived after him. Henceforth England was in no danger of invasion. Napoleon might do as he pleased on the Continent. A few miles of sea made Britain safe from him. We therefore owe a very great debt of gratitude to Nelson and his sailors. Nelson was the greatest of all British admirals, and the one who performed the most brilliant and useful service to his country.

24. Pitt died in 1806, worn out with the anxieties of his unsuccessful struggle against Napoleon. It was now thought wisest to get the best statesmen of all parties to unite to form a ministry that would continue Pitt's resistance against the French. This was called the *Ministry of all the Talents*, because most of the men of talent, whether Whigs or Tories, were members of it. Among them was Fox, so long the enemy of the French War. But office soon convinced Fox that he had been wrong in opposing the war. Not England but Napoleon was the real cause of the struggle, and Fox now threw himself as heartily as Pitt had done into the work of defending his country. But before the end of 1806 Fox followed Pitt to the grave. They did not quite live long enough to see the passing of an *Act abolishing the slave-trade*, for which both had long been working. However, the Act was passed in 1807, and henceforth it was illegal for English

Death of
Pitt and
Fox, and
the long
Tory rule.

ships to carry negroes from Africa to America to be sold there to slavery. Negro slavery remained nearly



thirty years longer in our West Indian colonies, but some of its worst horrors were at an end when the

cruel slave-trade was stopped. Soon after this George III. turned out the Ministry of all the Talents, and put a purely Tory ministry in its place. The Tories remained in office till 1830. They were now, unlike Pitt, opposed to all change at home, but they worked doggedly and well in opposing the power of Napoleon.

25. In 1808 Napoleon tried to make his brother Joseph King of Spain. The Spaniards violently resisted, and, do what he could, the Emperor was never able to put them down. This Spanish resistance to Napoleon was most important to England, because it gave her a chance of striking at him by land as well as at sea. Before

The Penin-
sular War.



The Duke of Wellington.
(From a Portrait at Apsley House.)

long the best of the English generals, *Sir Arthur Wellesley*, was sent at the head of a British army to Spain. Wellesley was the son of an Irish peer.

His elder brother, the Marquis Wellesley, had been Governor-General of India, and Sir Arthur had already made a name for himself by his victories in that country. From 1808 to 1814 he fought what was called the *Peninsular War* against Napoleon. He had everything against him. The Spaniards were very uncertain allies, and the French troops were generally more numerous and better equipped. Yet the English general won several victories over the French. For the first of these, the Battle of *Talavera* in 1809, he was made a lord, and for later triumphs he was created *Duke of Wellington*. But though Wellington won many battles, he was often forced to retreat. But his courage, patience, and wisdom were so great that his troops never lost heart, and were always ready to fight again. No English general since Marlborough had done anything so brilliant as Wellington. Nothing save the dazzling genius of Napoleon could approach the rare qualities of command shown by our British leader in the Peninsula.

26. As time went on Napoleon's head was a little turned by his successes, and he strove to make himself despot of all Europe. But he could never succeed in this, since, do what he could, he was unable to touch the island realm which he so bitterly hated. But by



Grenadier in the Time
of the Peninsular War.

degrees his power became as odious to his subjects on the Continent as it had long been to Englishmen.

At last, in 1812, he quarrelled with Russia, and failed in an attempt to invade that country. Then came the chance of Britain. Wellington's weary work of waiting was over in the Peninsula. and in 1813 he won his crowning victory



Map to Illustrate the Peninsular War.

at Vittoria by which Joseph Bonaparte was finally driven out of Spain. In the same year, 1813, Germany followed the example of Spain and Russia, and rose against Napoleon, and drove him back into France. The result of all this was that in 1814 France itself was threatened with invasion. The French soldiers were taken from Spain to meet dangers nearer home, and Wellington, profiting by this, crossed the Pyrenees and invaded France on the south, while Austrians,

Prussians, and Russians passed over the Rhine on the east. Unable to resist so many foes, Napoleon gave up his power in 1814, and was banished to the little island of Elba.

27. Napoleon was too restless to stay long in Elba, and in 1815 was back in France, where his old soldiers welcomed him and restored him to power. But he had still to fight all Europe, whose armies were gathering on every frontier of France. He fell first of all on the army of British, Germans, ^{The Battle of Waterloo.} and Netherlands collected in the Netherlands, of which Wellington was the general. The two greatest generals in Europe met for the first time in battle on 18th June 1815 at *Waterloo*, a few miles south of Brussels. After a long and fierce fight Napoleon was utterly defeated. He was once more driven from power, and forced to spend the rest of his life a prisoner in the island of St. Helena in the southern Atlantic. Thus the perseverance of England had at last triumphed by the destruction of the common foe of all the nations of Europe. But the struggle had been a very severe one, and Britain had suffered much during the long war.

28. In 1810 George III. went mad, and his worthless son, *George, Prince of Wales*, was made ^{The Re-} Prince Regent. After lingering for ten ^{gency, and} years the aged king died in 1820, having ^{the death of} George III. long outlived his faculties. The Prince Regent then became George IV.

CHAPTER XXXVI

George IV., 1820-1830

(Married Caroline of Brunswick)

Principal Persons :

Lord Castlereagh ; George Canning ; Sir Robert Peel ; Daniel O'Connell ; Macadam ; George Stephenson ; Lord Byron.

Principal Dates :

1820. Accession of George IV.

1827. Death of Canning.

1829. Catholic Emancipation passed.

1830. Opening of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway. Death of George IV.

1. George IV. was vain, selfish, pleasure-loving, and idle. He had quarrelled badly with his father, and had in consequence made friends with the Whigs. But when he became Prince Regent he threw over the Whigs and kept the Tories in power. George III. had been so successful in winning back the power of naming his own ministers that his son, if he had chosen to do so, might have changed the ministry. But he was as false to his political friends as to his father. One good thing came of George's weakness. He was not persistent enough to keep in his hands the power which his father had won. Even under George III. the revival of the royal authority had done harm. Under his sons it might have stood in the way of all reform.

2. The Tories had now been in office since 1807. They were, however, divided among themselves. The

chief ministers, when George IV. became king, belonged to the narrower section of the party. Their leader was *Lord Castlereagh*, and the best of their young statesmen was *Sir Robert Peel*. These men were opposed to all great changes, and honestly believed that any real reform might pave the way to revolution. Fear of the

The old and
the new
Tories.



George IV.

(From a Picture in the National Portrait Gallery.)

French Revolution still had an over-strong influence on their minds. There was, however, a more liberal section of the Tory party, led by the brilliant and eloquent *George Canning*, the favourite disciple of the younger Pitt. The Canningites, as they were called, were true to the policy of Pitt, who had been a friend of reform. Like Pitt, they were in favour of Catholic emancipation. They differed from the Whigs because they were opposed to reform of Parliament. In this they were less wise than Pitt, who had

favoured Parliamentary reform before the Whigs had taken it up.

3. In 1822 Castlereagh committed suicide. The ministry was constructed so that the Canningites obtained a large share of power. It now passed laws abolishing the over-severe punishments for crime which in those days made thieving or forgery punishable by death. It cut down a number of taxes that interfered with trade. Peel,

George
Canning.



George Canning.

(From an Engraving by W. Hall, after Stewardson.)

now Home Secretary, reformed the police system, by establishing the trained and effective police force which we still have. Canning made English foreign policy wiser than it had been since Waterloo. In those days the Greeks, who had been cruelly oppressed by the Turks, rose in revolt against their tyrants. Many people in England sympathised with

the Greeks. Among them was the famous poet *Lord Byron*, who went to Greece to fight for the cause of freedom, but was soon carried off by fever. But the Russians also favoured the Greeks, and many Tories said that the Turks should be helped lest their decay should make Russia stronger in the East. However, Canning managed to work along with Russia, and secured for the Greeks their liberty. Their success would have been more complete, only Canning died in 1827 before the question was settled.

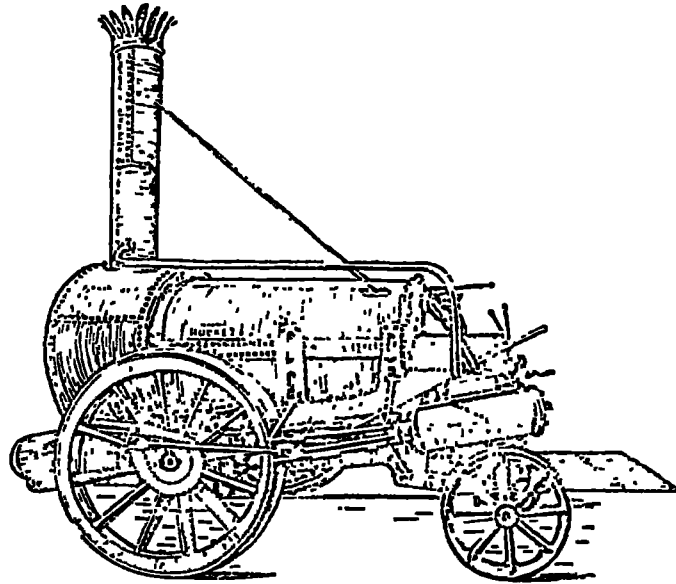
4. Canning's successor was the *Duke of Wellington*. Unluckily, Wellington was not such a wise statesman as general. He was old-fashioned in his ideas, and belonged to the party which disliked Canning. But he had a high sense of duty and a keen eye for facts. Up to now he had been opposed to Catholic emancipation. But now the Catholic question became more pressing than ever. A very eloquent, energetic, and shrewd Irish barrister, *Daniel O'Connell*, formed a body called the *Catholic Association*, and stirred up a great agitation in Ireland. The best statesmen had long been in favour of doing this justice to the Catholics, but had promised George III. not to raise the question in his lifetime. George IV. professed to be of his father's mind, but he was too weak to hold out long. Wellington at last saw that there was a real prospect of civil war in Ireland if the Catholic question were not settled. He therefore changed his front, and in 1829 carried a Bill which allowed Catholics to sit in Parliament and hold offices under the crown. A little before this he had repealed the Test Act, passed under Charles II., and still nominally in force. These measures relieved Dissenters as well as Catholics from the worst grievances from which they had suffered.

Catholic
emanci-
pation.

5. George IV. died in 1830, and was succeeded by his brother, William IV. Towards the end of his reign the

first railways worked by steam-engines were opened. Since the great growth of our trade under George III. the need for better and quicker means of getting from place to place had been generally felt. Canals had done a great deal for the transport of heavy goods. Roads had been made smooth and hard through the improvements brought in by an engineer named *Macadam*. On them magnificently horsed coaches now conveyed passengers and mails at a rate of over ten miles an hour, both by night and day. Moreover, the roads were now safe from the *highwaymen* who had infested them nearly down to the end of the eighteenth century. But canals were slow and transit by road expensive. In the colliery districts the custom grew up of making *railroads* with iron rails, and running wagons with grooved wheels on them that coal might be taken cheaply to the ships. For many years these wagons were drawn by horses. But it now struck *George Stephenson*, a Tyneside engineer of great shrewdness, that the steam-engine, long used for pumping and driving machinery, and more recently used to a small extent to propel ships, might also be employed to move trucks and carriages along the railroads. The result was that Stephenson invented the *locomotive steam-engine* a few years after *steamships* had been discovered. The first railway on which Stephenson's engines were largely used went between Stockton and Darlington. But the first really important railway for passengers as well as for goods was the line between Liverpool and Manchester, opened in 1830. On this line Stephenson's famous engine the *Rocket* drew a passenger train at over thirty miles an hour. Though lovers of old ways shook their heads at railways, it was soon found that the new mode of locomotion was too convenient not to be generally used. In a very few years a network of railways spread all over the

land. They enabled British trade to grow so fast that even the wonderful progress made in Pitt's days was soon outdistanced. What railways did for inland



The Rocket.

commerce, steamships did for sea trade. Britain, the country of their first employment, was thus enabled to maintain the highest place among the trading states of the world.

CHAPTER XXXVII

William IV., 1830-1837

(Married Adelaide of Meiningen)

Principal Persons :

Lord Grey ; Lord Melbourne ; Sir Robert Peel ; the Duke of Wellington.

Principal Dates :

- 1830. Accession of William IV.
- 1832. The great Reform Act.
- 1833. Abolition of Negro Slavery.
- 1837. Death of William IV.

1. William IV. was called the sailor king, since as a young man he had served in the navy. He was easy-going, good-natured, and well-meaning.
Character of William IV. though not very wise, and rather eccentric.

He was, and deserved to be, more popular than his brother. He married *Adelaide of Meiningen*. Their children died young, so that the next in succession was his niece, the *Princess Victoria*, daughter of his younger brother, Edward, Duke of Kent.

2 The great event of William IV.'s short reign was the reform of Parliament. For a long time it had been felt that the House of Commons did not properly represent the people. Its members had been chosen in the same way and by the same voters for many hundreds of years. Each county in England returned only two members. The greatest and richest counties, like Yorkshire or Lancashire, had no more representation

The movement for Parliamentary reform.

than Rutland or Westmorland. Many great towns, such as Manchester, Leeds, and Birmingham, did not send members to Parliament at all, while there were



William IV.

many '*rotten boroughs*,' as they were called, which had hardly any inhabitants or electors. Besides all this, there were very few who had votes at elections. In

the counties only the *freeholders*—that is, the land-owners—could have a vote, while many borough members were elected by the Town Councils, and not by the people at all. The new manufacturing districts were particularly badly represented, and the rich manufacturers and merchants were indignant that all power should be in the hands of the landlords. Moreover, the poor hoped that if they had votes they would be able to do something to make their condition better. Accordingly, a great cry was raised for what was called the reform of Parliament—that is to say, for a new law which should change the fashion of electing members of the House of Commons in such a way as to make the House really chosen by the people. When this demand for reform was once raised, it became impossible to resist it.

3. Both the elder and the younger Pitt had been in favour of Parliamentary reform, but all change was made impossible for a time through the fear of the French Revolution. However, the Whigs, headed by *Lord Grey*, now took up the question, and prepared a Reform Bill. Yet the Prime Minister, Wellington, declared that he was opposed to all change in the constitution of Parliament. Reforming feeling, however, was so high that it made itself felt even in the unreformed Parliament. Wellington was driven from power, and with him end the fifty years of Tory rule. Lord Grey formed a Whig ministry pledged to reform. He was supported not only by his own followers, but by most of the Canningites, who now deserted the Tories and went in for reform. But there was still a great deal of discussion and agitation before the question could be settled. One Reform Bill was thrown out by the House of Lords after it had passed through the House of Commons. Riots broke out in several places, and civil war seemed possible. But as with Catholic

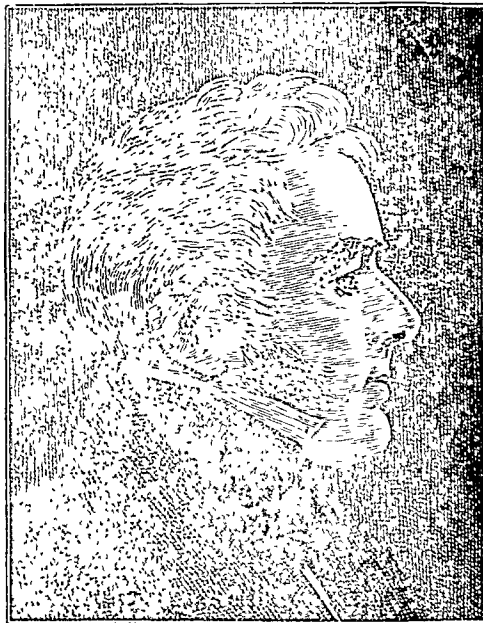
The Whigs
pass the
great
Reform Bill.

emancipation, Wellington's sound sense prevented any foolish obstinacy being shown by those who disliked change. He saw that the people meant to have reform, and that it was impossible for the Lords to stand against the national will. When the Bill again came before the Lords he stopped away, and persuaded so many others to do the same, that the Whig peers carried the Bill. Thus the *First Reform Act* became law in 1832. By it the rotten boroughs were abolished, and members were given to the great towns, and more members to the larger counties. A great increase in the number of persons allowed to vote was also made. The general result of the Bill was that the substantial middle classes, such as the farmers, and shopkeepers, and manufacturers, had most power. Though few working-men obtained votes, the power of the landlords was much reduced.

4. The Whigs remained in office for the rest of William IV.'s reign. After a time Lord Grey gave up his place, and *Lord Melbourne* became Prime Minister. Many other reforms were carried out during those years. One of these was the *abolition of negro slavery* (1833) in all British colonies. The slave-owners received a large sum of money by way of compensation; but it was, unfortunately, found very hard to get the freed slaves to work regularly, and the West Indies, which, since the loss of America, had been the most flourishing of the British colonies, gradually lost the prosperity which had been based on injustice and cruelty. Other Whig reforms were the *New Poor Law* (1834), which improved the ways in which relief was given to poor people out of the rates, and the *Municipal Corporations Reform Act* of 1835, which did for the Town Councils what the Bill of 1832 did for Parliament. By it every town was governed by a mayor and a popularly chosen town council. The new boroughs

Further
Whig
reforms.

thus had their local Parliaments, just as the whole nation had its Parliament at Westminster. But the Whigs soon became tired of making changes, and lost



Viscount Melbourne.

(From a Figure in Hayter's 'Reformed Parliament' in the National Gallery.)

a good deal of their popularity. Melbourne was still, however, Prime Minister when William died, in 1837, and his niece, Victoria, became Queen Victoria.

CHAPTER XXXVIII

Victoria, 1837-1901

(Married Prince Albert of Coburg)

Principal Persons :

Lord Melbourne; Sir Robert Peel; John Henry Newman;
Dr. Chalmers; Daniel O'Connell; John Bright; Richard Cobden;
Lord John Russell; Lord Palmerston; Benjamin Disraeli, Earl
of Beaconsfield; Lord Derby; William Ewart Gladstone; the
Marquis of Salisbury; Napoleon III.; Charles Stewart Parnell;
General Gordon; the Mahdi; Lord Frederick Cavendish;
Lord Hartington (afterwards Duke of Devonshire); Joseph
Chamberlain; Lord Rosebery; Lord Roberts; Charles Darwin.

Principal Dates :

- 1837. Accession of Victoria.
- 1841. Peel succeeds Melbourne.
- 1846. The Corn Laws abolished, and Peel driven from office.
- 1848. The Chartist movement fails.
- 1852. The Coalition Ministry of Whigs and Peelites.
- 1854-1856. The Crimean War.
- 1857. The Indian Mutiny.
- 1858. India brought under the Crown.
- 1865. Death of Palmerston.
- 1867. Second Reform Bill.
- 1868-1874. The great Gladstone Ministry.
- 1869. Disestablishment of the Irish Church.
- 1870. Elementary Education Act.
- 1870-1871. War between France and Prussia.
- 1874-1880. The Disraeli Ministry.
- 1878. Treaty of Berlin.
- 1880-1885. The Second Gladstone Ministry.
- 1884-1885. The Third Reform Bill.
- 1885. Death of Gordon.
- 1886. Gladstone declares for Home Rule.
- 1886-1892. The Salisbury Unionist Ministry.

- 1892-1895. The last Gladstone Ministry.
- 1895-1901. The Third Salisbury Ministry.
- 1898. Conquest of the Sudan.
- 1899. Beginning of the Boer War.
- 1901. Death of Queen Victoria.

1. The new queen was only eighteen years old. But she showed a rare courage and discretion, and before long made herself popular. At first she depended a good deal on Lord Melbourne. But Melbourne was not a strong minister, and had great difficulty in keeping office. There was, moreover, a danger in the queen being advised by one party only. Luckily this was got rid of when Victoria married in 1840 her cousin *Albert of Coburg*. Prince Albert was called the *Prince Consort*, and though young, was thoughtful, hard-working, and unselfish. He proved a much better counsellor for the queen than any party politician. His position was a very difficult one. He was stiff in his ways, and in many respects more German than English. This prevented him being popular at first, but the more he was known the better he was liked. He never thought about himself, but always about his wife and her people, and he worked hard in doing the things which the queen found it difficult to do herself. After his death in 1861, it was clear how his self-denying policy had brought the ancient monarchy into closer touch with the new system which began with the Reform Bill. In the course of this long reign the full effects of this measure were gradually worked out. Two other Reform Bills made the Government more and more dependent upon the people, until at last nearly every male won a share in the government of the country. It is in no small measure to the wisdom of Prince Albert, and the devotion of the queen, that, despite these changes, the monarchy became more popular than it had been for a long time.

2. The state of the country was unsatisfactory. Ireland was not contented with Catholic Emancipation,



Photo : Chancellor and Son.

Queen Victoria.

and O'Connell was now demanding the Repeal of the Union. The Whig ministers would not agree to this,

but they were obliged to conciliate O'Connell and his followers (who were called the Repealers), since they needed Irish votes to keep themselves in office. In England and Scotland there was also much discontent. Working-men found they were no better off after the Reform Bill than they had been before it. Wages were low, and the price of bread was kept very high by the *Corn Laws*, which prevented foreign corn being brought into the country, because of the heavy duty imposed upon it. Some extreme men started an agitation for what was called the *People's Charter*. They were therefore called *Chartists*. They asked for further reform of Parliament, and insisted that every man should have a vote, and that Parliament should be elected by secret ballot every year. For many years they were looked upon with great alarm, though many of the things they asked for have since been quietly granted without much harm happening. Melbourne had a difficult task in dealing with so much discontent.

3. The Tories had a wise leader in Peel, a Lancashire manufacturer's son. Peel thoroughly understood the middle classes, and knew well that they had no eagerness to upset the institutions of the country. But he saw clearly that his party must change with the times. He adapted his policy to the new state of things. He dropped the unpopular name of Tory and called himself a *Conservative*. He profited by the mistakes of the Whigs, and at last, at the general election of 1841, the Conservatives won a large majority. Melbourne resigned and Peel became Prime Minister. Peel now showed his greatness as a financier. He carried out many important reforms. For five years he governed the Empire well and vigorously. But during that period he was gradually changing his views as to how the country ought to be taxed. He had started in life

Peel's
triumph in
1841.

as a *Protectionist*, who thought that English-grown and English-made articles ought to be protected from being undersold by things brought in from abroad. But he now repealed many duties which had been imposed in order to keep out foreign goods from



Sir Robert Peel.

(From a Mezzotint after Sir Thomas Lawrence.)

competing with our produce. Thus he was changed by experience into becoming what is called a *free trader*.

4. If Peel believed in free trade at all, free trade in bread was more important than anything else. Yet the Corn Laws still remained as high as ever. With the object of helping British landlords and farmers, so heavy a duty had been put on foreign corn, that only when the price of wheat was very high could any foreign corn come into the

The Anti-
Corn Law
Agitation.

country. The Corn Laws made bread dear and caused much grumbling, especially in the manufacturing towns, which cared little for British agriculture and a great deal for cheap food. For some years a body named the *Anti-Corn Law League* had been in existence, whose object was to abolish all taxes on bread. Its founders were *John Bright*, an eloquent Quaker manufacturer from Rochdale, and *Richard Cobden*, a Manchester calico-printer of wonderful earnestness and power of persuasion. The landlords declared that if the Corn Laws were repealed they would be ruined. But the League convinced many people that it was more important to give every man cheap bread than to keep up the artificial prosperity of a single class of the nation. Peel himself was more than half converted by it. Then came a terrible famine in Ireland which finally made Peel see that the Corn Laws had to go.

5. The Catholic Question and the Repeal Agitation had unsettled Ireland. But the real thing that kept

The Irish famine. Ireland discontented and unhappy was the poverty of the peasantry. There were more people in Ireland than the land would feed, and a bad system of land laws made the peasants quite at the mercy of their landlords. In a great part of Ireland the land was tilled by very small farmers, who paid such a huge rent that they had very little left to live on after satisfying the landlord. They were compelled therefore to feed on the cheapest possible food. Now, the cheapest food was the potato, and for this reason the greater part of the Irish population lived on potatoes and nothing else. But now a disease broke out which made potatoes unfit for human food. The result was that millions of Irishmen were plunged into fearful distress, and could not get enough to eat to keep them from starvation.

6. Peel did what he could to relieve this misery. He soon saw that it was monstrous to make food dear

by putting taxes upon it when millions were starving. He therefore proposed to abolish the Corn Laws, and, though many of his followers became very angry, he was strong enough, with the help of the Whigs, to carry out his purpose. In 1816 Peel reduced the tax on corn to a nominal sum, so that henceforth grain for the people could be bought wherever it was cheapest. The landlords cried out that they were ruined, and a section of the Conservatives, called the *Protectionists*, was formed, which was bitterly hostile to Peel. It was led by *Benjamin Disraeli*, a clever and eccentric writer of novels, and a Jew by birth, whom Peel had offended. Before long the Protectionists joined with the Whigs and drove Peel from office. Slow to move as he was, stiff and narrow as he seemed to a man like Disraeli, Peel was one of the most clear-headed, honourable, and straightforward of the queen's prime ministers. Whenever he saw a thing was right, he declared for it. He died a few years later. His admirers long acted together under the name of *Peelites*. The most famous of them was *William Ewart Gladstone*, the son of a Liverpool merchant, who first held office in Peel's ministry.

7. During Peel's ministry many great changes in the Church were slowly coming to a head. The religious revival, brought about by the Methodist movement in the middle of the eighteenth century, had been continued in the early years of the nineteenth by what was called the *Evangelical Revival*. The Evangelicals, who strove to bring back the old teaching of the Puritans, were good and pious people, who, though sometimes rather narrow, were high-minded and devoted, and did a great deal to make people realise their duties to God and man. Their leaders were mostly members of the Church of England, though many Evangelicals were Nonconformists. They were foremost in the movement for the abolition

Abolition of
the Corn
Laws.

The Evan-
gelical
Revival.

of slavery, sent out missions to the heathen, and promoted many useful works. But about the time of the Reform Bill a group of earnest and learned men at

The Oxford movement. Oxford began to teach men to go back to the ideas of Laud and the High Churchmen of the seventeenth century. The greatest

of these was *John Henry Newman*, who, however, turned Roman Catholic in 1845. But even after his secession the movement continued to grow, and though very unpopular at first, the new High Church school gradually made its way by its energy and devotion, and soon began to exercise a very wide influence. There was a parallel, but very

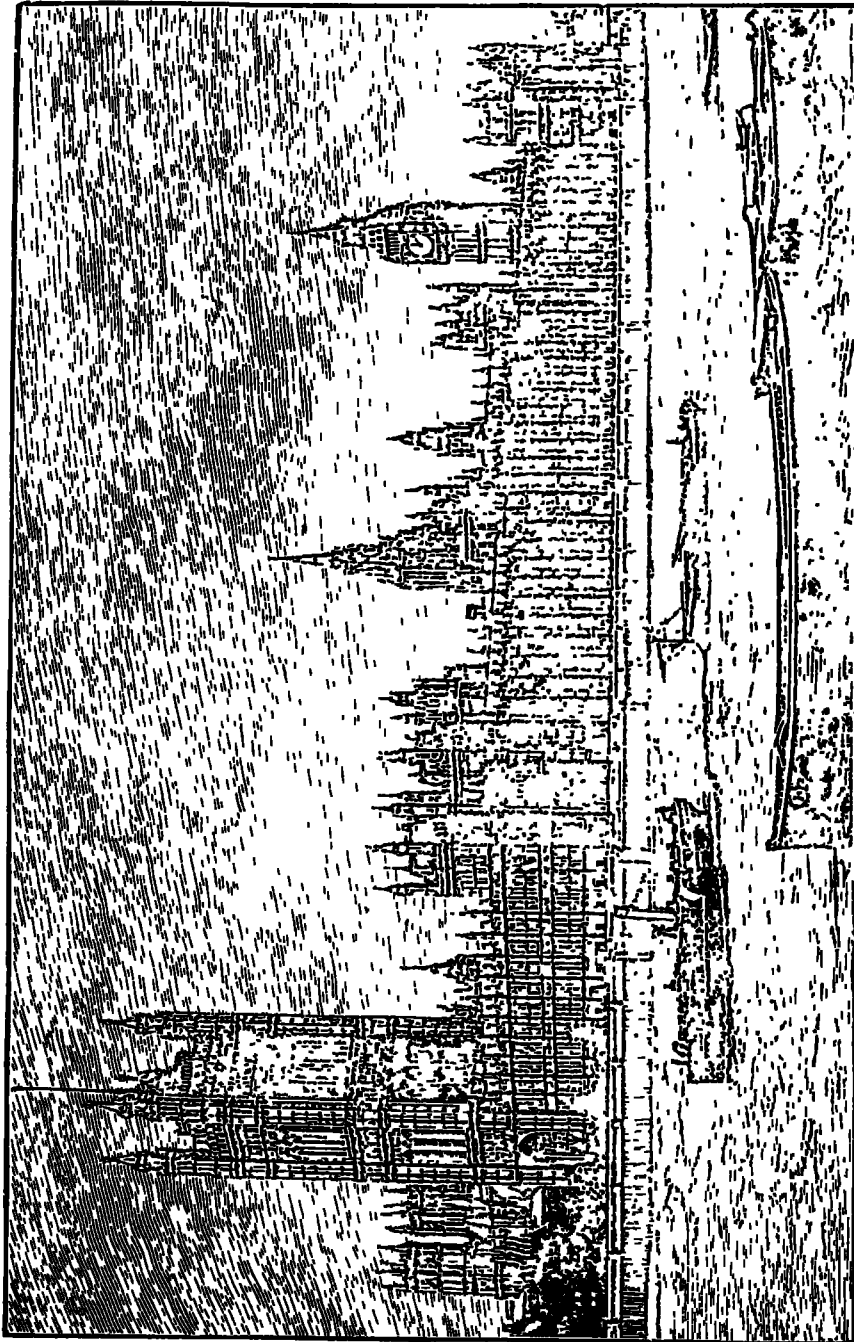
The Scottish Disruption. different, movement in Scotland, where in 1843 occurred what is called the *Disruption* of the Scotch Church. In that year many

Scottish ministers, headed by *Dr. Chalmers*, formed a new Church called the *Free Church of Scotland*, as a protest against the Established Church. All these movements showed increased activity in ecclesiastical matters. But this did not prevent people slowly getting more liberal and tolerant. During the next

Progress of religious equality. generation a great many laws were passed to put an end to the position of inferiority which Nonconformists from the English Church had suffered up to the beginning of the present reign.

8. The *Liberals*—as the Whigs were now generally called—reaped the advantages of the split between the Protectionists and the Peelites. From 1846 to 1852 a Liberal ministry, at whose head was *Lord John Russell*, remained in power. It had an easier task before it than the previous Whig administration. The repeal of the Corn Laws had brought prosperity to the ordinary workman, who became less discontented, as he was now winning higher wages and living on better food.

Collapse of the Chartists and Re-pealers.



The New Houses of Parliament, opened 1852.

One result of this was seen in the increasing weakness of the Chartists. In 1848 there were revolutions all over Europe. There was fighting in nearly every great city, and many Governments were overturned. The Chartists tried to bring about a revolution in England, and summoned a great meeting of their followers on *Kennington Common*, hoping to frighten Parliament into giving all they asked for. But nothing came of their talk, and the meeting proved an utter failure. In a short time Chartism died away, but not before it had done good in calling attention to the necessity for more efforts to make the life of the ordinary man happier. In the same way the Repeal agitation in Ireland gradually came to an end. O'Connell, the only strong Irish leader, died, and after this Ireland had a long period of quiet.

9. In a few years quarrels between Lord John Russell and Lord *Palmerston*, the most popular and energetic of his followers, weakened the Liberal party. This gave the Protectionists under Lord Derby and Disraeli a chance of getting office in 1852. When once in power they saw that it was useless trying to bring back the Corn Laws, and therefore dropped their Protectionist views. But even this change of policy did not allow them to remain long in office. In opposition the Liberals had patched up their quarrels, and had also drawn nearer to the Peelites. The result was that they drove Derby from office, and set up a *Coalition Ministry*, in which both Liberals and Peelites took part. But the new ministers did not work well together. The worst result of their lack of union was that England gradually drifted into war with Russia.

10. For a long time the growth of Russia had excited alarm. The Russians were now threatening to destroy the Turkish Empire, and most people in the West were anxious to uphold the Turks, so as to keep u

what was called the Balance of Power. This was a great mistake, since it was quite impossible to maintain the Turkish power for long. The Turks were rude, cruel soldiers, splendid as ^{The Crimean War.} fighters, but quite unteachable as rulers, and brutally misgoverning their Christian subjects, who were now constantly rising in revolt against them. We have seen how, before this, some of the Greeks had managed to win their freedom. Other Christian subjects of the Turks were now trying to shake off the Turkish yoke, and looked to Russia for help.



Walker & Cockerell sc.

The Crimean War.

The right policy for Europe would have been to join with Russia in getting rid of Turkish rule. But the statesmen of the West, in their natural alarm of the growth of Russia, were unwise enough to back up the Turks. Fearing lest Russia should make herself mistress of the Black Sea and the Levant, England declared war against her in 1854. France was now ruled by *Napoleon III.*, nephew of the great Napoleon, who strove to follow his uncle's fashion of government, and was anxious to win military glory. Sometimes he thought of fighting England, and, a few years after this, his hostility to us caused the beginnings of the *volunteer movement*, which has ever since given

Great Britain a large force of willing citizen soldiers. But he now joined with England against Russia, so that for the first time for many generations Englishmen and Frenchmen fought side by side.

11. The chief fighting in this war was in the peninsula called the *Crimea*, which juts out into the northern part of the Black Sea. In this region the Russians had built a strong fortress called *Sebastopol*, and the English and French now landed an army in the hope of destroying it. It was not hard to begin the siege, but winter came on with its terrible cold, and the allied armies were badly mismanaged, and suffered severely from disease. When there was actual fighting to be done our soldiers behaved splendidly. Thus at *Balaclava* the six hundred troopers of the light brigade of British cavalry charged a whole Russian army, strongly posted and protected by artillery, while at *Inkerman* a few regiments of British infantry resisted for many hours the attack of a great Russian force which had come upon them unawares in the midst of a dense November fog. But all through the war the generalship was bad, while the home Government showed deplorable incompetence. At last a great outcry was raised against the Coalition, which was driven from office. Palmerston was now made Prime Minister, and his energy soon put a new colour on the whole struggle. Sebastopol was captured, and in 1856 the Russians were glad to make peace.

12. In 1857 a trouble worse than the Crimean War shook the British Empire to its foundations. Ever since the days of Clive a large part of the army that kept India obedient to English rule had consisted of native troops called *Sepoys*. Some carelessness in their treatment made them very discontented. They persuaded themselves that we wished to destroy their religion and their race,

The Indian
Mutiny.

and in 1857 suddenly rose in mutiny, shooting their officers, and committing all sorts of horrors. Luckily the revolt did not spread over all India, and some of the Sepoys and many of the native princes remained loyal. At last, after great efforts, the mutiny was put down. It was now felt that the *East India Company*, which had hitherto ruled India, ought not to be allowed to do so any longer. In 1858 the Company was abolished, and India brought directly under queen and Parliament. In 1877 the queen was made Empress of India.

13. Palmerston was the only British statesman who had won credit during the Crimean War. Until his death, nine years later, he remained the strongest force in politics, and, save for one brief interval, Prime Minister. He was an Palmerston's rule and death. easy-going, good-humoured man, who cared nothing for reforms at home, and very little for party politics. But he had a great belief in his country and in the British Empire. He showed a fine spirit and a high courage in the face of difficulties, and Britain owes much to his patriotism and sound common sense. Sometimes the methods by which he sought to uphold British interests gave just offence. Yet his general policy was on right lines, and he did good service to Europe as well as to England by reason of the sympathy he showed with nations struggling for their freedom. He did something to help the Italians, who were now gradually throwing off the rule of their many princes and building up a united Italian kingdom. He made the English and the French better friends than they had been for centuries. But he was bitterly hated by those who thought that under all circumstances England must keep at peace, even if peace meant some loss to Britain. The ardent reformers who sat in his Cabinet bore his yoke very impatiently. Chief among these were the Peelites, now entirely united with the Liberal party, and

more eager for change than the old-fashioned Whigs. Palmerston allowed Gladstone, the Peelite chief, to be his Chancellor of the Exchequer. In this capacity Gladstone drew up brilliant free-trade budgets, that showed him to be the real inheritor of the financial genius of his master Peel. But the Prime Minister looked with great mistrust on his enthusiastic Chancellor of the Exchequer. Palmerston was growing very old, but he loved power, and clung to it till his death in 1865. He shrewdly saw that with his retirement the reformers would win the upper hand. 'Gladstone,' he said, 'will soon have it all his own way. Whenever he gets my place we shall have strange doings.'

14. Lord John Russell was now made an earl and Prime Minister, while Gladstone took Palmerston's place as the real chief of the ministry.

The Second Reform Act. Gladstone now brought forward a new

Reform Bill. But Palmerston's followers still held their master's view that enough had been done in the way of Parliamentary Reform by the Act of 1832. In 1866 they joined with the Conservatives in defeating the measure and in turning out the Government. The Whig revolt against reform gave the Conservatives under Derby and Disraeli another chance of office. Disraeli had long been carefully watching the course of English affairs. He saw that the Conservatives had made the mistake of simply opposing everything, and was convinced that they could never win by such a policy. To the horror of the old Tories he now brought forward a Reform Bill of his own, which was successfully passed into law in 1867. By it all male householders got votes in the boroughs, and the county franchise was extended to all who paid £12 a year in rent. The smaller boroughs were deprived of separate representation, and an increased number of members given to the greater

towns and more populous counties. The result of the Bill was that nearly all the workmen, who happened to live in the boroughs, had votes, and that the middle classes, who, since 1832, had had everything their own way, had no longer the power of electing the greater part of Parliament.

15. At the first general election held under the new system, the Liberals had a majority of 120. The Derby-Disraeli ministry at once came to an end, and Gladstone became Prime Minister. His views were very different from those which he had held in the days when he had been a follower of Peel. But he was very able, very much in earnest, wonderfully eloquent as a speaker, and of rare skill in ruling the House of Commons, and in appealing to the emotions of the new voters. He held power for six years, from 1868 to 1874, and every one of these years was marked by the passing of some great reform.

The
great
Gladstone
ministry.

16. Ireland had again become a source of trouble. A few years before a new agitation had been set on foot by a secret society called the *Fenians*. The Fenians hated English rule, and aimed at setting up an independent Irish Republic. For several years they kept England and Ireland in alarm. Their activity called attention to the state of Ireland, and made Gladstone eager to do something to get rid of Irish discontent. With this object he deprived the Protestant Established Church in Ireland of much of its property, and broke off its connection with the state. This was called the *Disendowment and Disestablishment of the Irish Church*, and was carried out in 1869. The Irish were largely Roman Catholics, and had long hated the Irish Church as a sign of English supremacy. But they had many other grievances besides the Church. Though they welcomed Gladstone's Bill for disestablishing the

Irish
troubles and
remedies.

Church, they remained as discontented as ever. Nor were they more pleased when Gladstone passed an *Irish Land Act*, which strove to improve the condition of the Irish farmers. A new agitation arose for *Home Rule for Ireland*, and before long a large number of the Irish members were pledged to obtain a measure



William Ewart Gladstone.

(From Photo by London Stereoscopic Company.)

for setting up a separate Parliament at Dublin, such as had existed in the days of Grattan. Gladstone was not prepared to meet this demand, so the Irish question remained as troublesome as ever.

17. Gladstone also undertook many other reforms. Among these was the reform of the army, where the curious plan of officers buying their commissions was put an end to, and a new system was set up by which

the different regiments were attached to a particular county or district. Another great improvement was the passing of the *Elementary Education Act of 1870*, by which *School Boards* were set up, and every child given a chance of learning to read, write, and cipher. But each change provoked a great deal of opposition, and some of the ministers showed want of tact and firmness.

Gladstone's
other
reforms.

18. Foreign politics also attracted much attention. There was a great war between France and Prussia in 1870 and 1871, in which the French were utterly beaten. The Emperor Napoleon III. was blamed by his subjects for causing the war and mismanaging the army. He was therefore deposed and a Republic set up in France, which has lasted ever since. The triumph of Prussia led to the other German princes recognising its king William as German Emperor, and the establishment of a new constitution for Germany, which thus at last became united, as Italy also became joined together in a single state. Germany and Italy had long been nations, and of late years the notion had grown up that people belonging to the same nation ought to be members of the same state. The strongest powers, such as England, and France, and Russia, owed their strength to being nations as well as states. With the growth of united Italy and united Germany, the national state became the rule all over western Europe.

The Franco-
German
War.

19. The Gladstone government kept Great Britain out of the great struggle between the French and the Germans. Generally, however, it shewed little firmness in dealing with its chief foreign difficulties, though it was sincerely eager for peace, and did good service by promoting arbitration instead of fighting as a means of settling disputes between different states.

Gladstone's
foreign
policy.

20. In 1874 there were new elections which gave the Conservatives a majority for the first time since 1841. It was the moment of Disraeli's triumph. For nearly thirty years he had led the Conservatives, but they had always been in a minority, and, though he had three times been minister for a short space, he had never really been able to enjoy real power. He now succeeded Gladstone, and for six years, 1874 to 1880, acted as head of a vigorous Government. He said that the country had had enough of violent changes under Gladstone. He strove to carry on the daily government of the country in an efficient way, to bring in practical improvements in small matters, and to look more carefully after the interests of England abroad than, as he thought, the Gladstone ministry had done. But as time went on he had great trouble in the House of Commons with the Irish Home Rulers. The Irish now found a shrewd, unscrupulous, but very able leader in *Charles Stewart Parnell*, a Protestant, who soon began to sway the Irish people as no man since O'Connell had done. The Home Rulers tried to make their influence felt in Parliament by making long speeches, which kept the house sitting up all night, and by obstructing in every way the course of business. In Ireland they started a *Land League*, which strove to make the tenants the owners of the farms that they cultivated.

21. The Eastern Question again gave trouble. After the Crimean War it had been hoped that the Turks would reform and govern their Christian subjects tolerably. But experience soon showed how foolish it was to expect the Turk to change his barbarous ways, and once more there were revolts of ill-treated Christians, who as usual looked to Russia for help. A rising of the Bulgarians against the

The Disraeli
ministry,
1874-1880.

The Russo-
Turkish
War, and
the Treaty
of Berlin.

Turks was put down with atrocious cruelty. Europe made weak efforts to protect the subjects of the Sultan



The Earl of Beaconsfield.
(From a Photograph by J. Hughes, 1876.)

from his oppression, but nothing effective came of these attempts. At last, in 1877, the Russians went to war with the Turks. They met with a stubborn

resistance, but, after much hard fighting, the sturdy Russian soldiers forced their way through the Balkan passes and were in full march on Constantinople. Disgust at the outrages wrought by the Turks in Bulgaria had been too strong in England to make it possible to help the Turks. But even those who wished to put an end to Turkish misrule grew alarmed at the prospect of the Russians becoming masters of Constantinople. Disraeli, who had now become *Earl of Beaconsfield*, sent our fleet to the coast of Turkey, and made ready for fighting Russia. But the danger was removed when a European conference met at Berlin, and drew up fairly satisfactory terms of peace. Bulgaria was freed from the Turkish yoke, and the Sultan was forced to promise to treat his subjects better. Beaconsfield boasted that he had given England 'peace with honour.' He had been accused of backing up the Turks, but there was little in the treaty that was favourable to them. Still it left the Sultan ruler of a considerable territory in Europe, and fresh wars and disturbances a few years later showed that the Eastern Question was not yet settled. It made it clear, however, that it can be settled only by putting an end to Turkish rule. None of the promises made by the Sultan were ever kept.

22. Gladstone had withdrawn from public life after his defeat, but the atrocities wrought by the Turks in Bulgaria brought him out of retirement to denounce the 'unspeakable Turk' and Disraeli who seemed likely to make an alliance with him. Like the previous ministry, Beaconsfield's government had made many mistakes, and Gladstone's indignant eloquence was very effective against it. The result was seen in the general election of 1880, which gave the Liberals once more a majority.

23. Beaconsfield gave up office and died a year

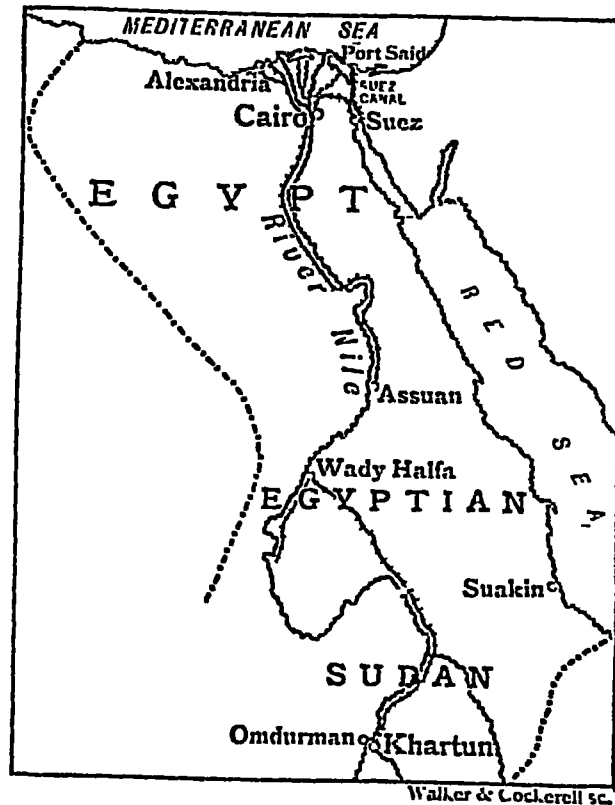
later. He had outlived the follies of his early career, but there was always something rather fantastic and strange about him. He ^{Death of} Beaconsfield. was not only a very able man, and a most acute party leader; he had an extraordinary knowledge of men, and a wonderful insight into the heart of some large questions. He did much towards promoting the greatness of the British Empire.

24. The second Gladstone government lasted from 1880 to 1885. It was much troubled by the uneasy outlook of foreign affairs. Perhaps its worst difficulties were in *Egypt*, which up to a few years before had been ruled by a prince called the *Khedive*. Egypt had recently become very important to England through the *Suez Canal* having been cut through the Isthmus of Suez, so as to enable ships, trading between the West and India, to use the route of the Mediterranean and Red Sea, instead of the much longer way by the Cape of Good Hope. The canal had been built by a French company, though chiefly useful to the English. But the extravagant ways of the Khedive had got his country into debt, and had brought about such confusion that in Beaconsfield's days England and France interfered. They deposed the Khedive, and set up a joint control of Egypt which practically made the two Western powers the rulers of the country. But the Egyptians disliked the foreigners' rule, and rose in revolt. Moreover, there was a rising in the *Sudan*, the region of the Upper Nile, which had been a few years before conquered by the Khedive. This was led by a Mohammedan prophet called the *Mahdi*, who soon destroyed the Egyptian power throughout the country. When this double crisis came, the French withdrew from Egypt and left the English to deal single-handed with the difficulties in which they had fallen. Egypt itself was easily subdued.

But the Sudan was altogether lost, except where a few Egyptian garrisons still held out.

25. The English could not leave the garrisons to their fate, and there was a danger lest the Mahdi's power should extend to Egypt itself. To save the garrisons the government sent to the Sudan an enthusiastic and high-minded soldier named *Charles Gordon*, who, after a wonderful career in China, had been appointed in the Khedive's time ruler of the Sudan. He was the only

Gordon's
death at
Khartum



Egypt and Khartum.

European who had any influence over the fierce Sudanese, but he soon saw that he could do nothing unless the government gave him troops to restore order and smash the Mahdi. But the ministers left him to his fate. He reached *Khartum*, the chief city of the Sudan, where the Mahdi soon closely besieged

him. When it was too late, the government resolved to send an army to release him. But before the soldiers could complete their long journey up the Nile, Khartum had been captured and the heroic Gordon slain (1885). After this the Sudan was abandoned to the Mahdi, whose power soon declined.

26. Unsuccessful in Egypt, the ministry had great difficulties with the House of Commons, where the Irish Home Rulers, under Parnell's guidance, threatened to stop nearly all business by ^{Home Rule.} their policy of obstruction. In Ireland outrage was frequent, and, despite land reform, the peasantry were still suffering greatly from poverty and famine. Efforts were made to deal with distress by a new *Land Act*, and to restore order by special laws against outrage. At last the troubles came to a head when some of the wild fanatics murdered *Lord Frederick Cavendish*, the Irish Secretary, the brother of *Lord Hartington*, one of the chief members of the Cabinet. Fresh measures of coercion were then passed through Parliament, the chief result of which was the union of the Home Rulers with the Conservatives in a bitter opposition to the Government. In 1885 their united efforts drove Gladstone from power.

27. Before he resigned Gladstone passed, by agreement with the Conservatives, the *Third Reform Bill* of 1884, by which the right of having a vote was given to every male householder in the ^{The Third Reform Act.} counties, just as it had been given to the householders in the boroughs in 1867. The lesser boroughs were abolished, and the country cut up into constituencies, very roughly equal in population, and each returning one member. By this act every man with a house of his own had a voice in settling the fortunes of his country.

28. The Conservatives now took office, but could not keep it long, and in 1886 Gladstone was Prime Minister

for the third time. He now made an alliance with his former enemies, the Irish, and brought in a bill giving a separate Parliament to Ireland. But a large section of the Liberals refused to accept his new policy, and the Home Rule Bill was defeated in the House of Commons. A new general election was held in which the Conservatives made common cause with the Liberals who had voted against Home Rule. This new party was led by Lord Hartington (afterwards *Duke of Devonshire*) and *Joseph Chamberlain*, a very able Birmingham manufacturer. They took the name of *Liberal-Unionists*, and henceforth worked along with the Conservatives, whose leader, since Beaconsfield's death, had been the *Marquis of Salisbury*. The election gave a great majority to the *Unionist* party, and Salisbury became Prime Minister in 1886.

29. From 1886 to the queen's death in 1901 the Unionist party remained almost constantly in power.

Its rule was only broken in the years 1892 to 1895, when the Home Rulers, who won a small majority at the general election in 1892, formed a fourth Gladstone administration. But the Home Rulers had too small a majority to be able to do very much, and Gladstone, already a very old man, gave up office in 1894, and died soon afterwards. Under *Lord Rosebery*, his successor, the Home Rulers were further weakened by quarrels among their leaders, and in 1895 were forced to dissolve Parliament. A new general election once more returned Lord Salisbury to power. In the ministry he now formed he gave many offices to the Liberal-Unionists, who had been contented to support his former government without taking part in it. This ministry lasted for the rest of the queen's reign. Its attention was mainly occupied by foreign affairs, and it was forced to wage wars in many parts of the

The
Unionist
Govern-
ments, 1886-
1901.

world. In 1898 it made some atonement for the death of Gordon by the conquest of the Sudan, and the extension to that distant region of the strong and wise system of government under British control which had already done so much good in Egypt. But the success of the English in Egypt provoked much jealousy in France, and there was at one time a real prospect of war between the two countries, which soon happily passed away. Our position has been made more difficult by the coldness of several of the great European nations, but before the queen's death the outlook had become less dark.

30. One of the greatest things in Victoria's reign was the growth of the overseas dominions. After the loss of America under George III. Britain had few colonies left, save the *West Indies* and French *Canada*. Early in the nine-
The British Overseas Dominions.
 teenth century the West Indies were very prosperous, but their prosperity fell away after slavery was abolished, and free trade drove their sugar out of the markets. Canada, however, grew im-
Canada.
 mensely. Upper or English Canada was settled and soon began to outgrow French or Lower Canada. For a long time there were great troubles and more than one war. But at last the French and English learned to live together in peace. In 1867 the *Dominion of Canada* was set up, which brought the American colonies into unity and gave each of them local self-government. During the nineteenth century a new Britain has arisen in *Australia*, first
Australia.
 a mere convict settlement, but becoming great through gold discoveries and wool-growing. Australia is so vast a country that many different colonies were set up in it, the most important being *New South Wales*, whose capital is Sydney, and *Victoria*, whose chief city is Melbourne. Each of these became self-governing and independent countries, with

very little connection with each other. However, as they grew greater they began to realise the advantages of having some union among themselves. There were many difficulties in the way, but these were successfully overcome. At last, in 1901, the different Australian dominions were happily joined together in the *Commonwealth of Australia*, though, as in the case of Canada, each region continued to manage its own local affairs. Many hundred miles away from Australia lie the great islands of *New Zealand*, which also became the seat of a flourishing and energetic British community.

31. A fresh extension of the empire has arisen in South Africa. The first European settlements round the Cape of Good Hope were made by the Dutch. These were conquered by Britain in

The Boer
War.

Napoleon's time, and remained in her possession after the peace. Before long English settlers made their homes there, but they were outnumbered by the old Dutch farmers, or *Boers*, and did not get on well with them. The whole history of South Africa has been full of disputes between the British and Dutch, and the result has been to retard considerably its prosperity. At last some of the Boers fled from English rule into the interior, where they set up two republics, the *Transvaal* and the *Orange River Free State*, which were long suffered to remain independent. In 1877, however, the Transvaal was conquered by the British, but the Boers soon rose in revolt, and after 1881 were again allowed to govern themselves. Soon after this, rich mines of diamonds and gold were discovered in the Transvaal. The rush for wealth now brought many British settlers to the Transvaal, and fresh quarrels arose between the eager and restless newcomers and the stolid and old-fashioned Dutch farmers. The Free State made common cause with the Transvaal, and in 1899 war broke out between Britain and the two Boer republics. The British were badly led, and at first the

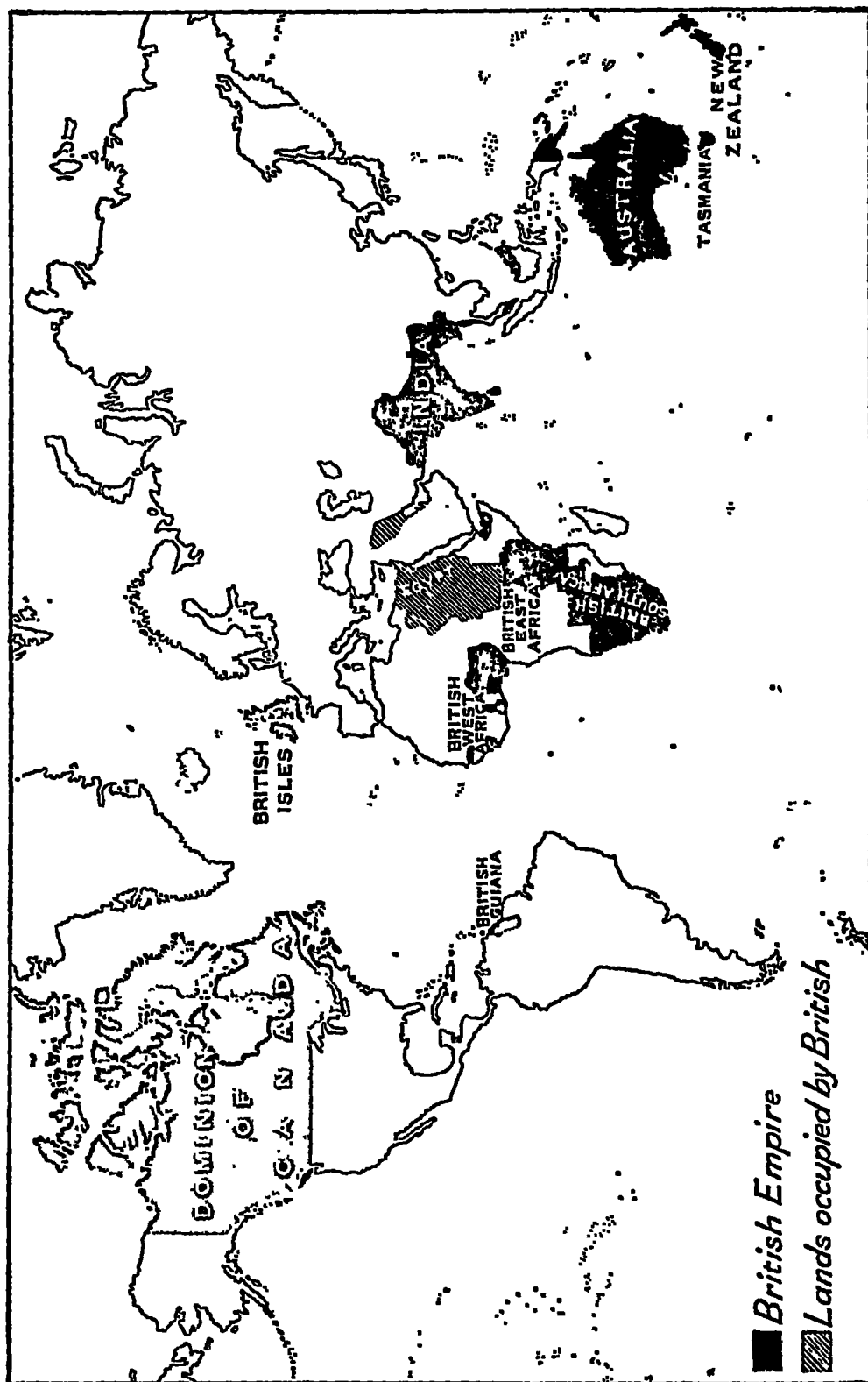
Boers, who were splendid soldiers, won many victories over them. However, very large forces, commanded by Lord Roberts, were poured into South Africa, and the tide of the war slowly turned. It was, however, still raging when Queen Victoria died, but it was already quite clear that British ascendancy would be established over South Africa.

32. Not only has Victoria's reign seen a wonderful growth of the overseas dominions. In her later years and ever since men began to realise the need of more unity and good feeling between the dwellers in the British islands and their kinsmen dwelling in the new Britains planted beyond the sea. A splendid proof of this was shown in the readiness with which the new dominions sent soldiers to help to fight the battles of the empire, in the Sudan, in South Africa, and against the Germans. Not less noteworthy has been the contribution made to the defence of the common cause by the soldiers of India, notably in the eastern campaigns against the allies of Germany.

Growth of
unity and
good feeling
in the British
Empire.

33. In 1901 Queen Victoria died, full of years and honour. Her reign was the longest in all our history. She was succeeded by her eldest son, Edward VII.

Death of
Victoria.



WALTON & COCKFIELD, LTD.

THE BRITISH EMPIRE IN 1900

BOOK VIII
THE HOUSE OF WINDSOR, 1901-1918

CHAPTER XXXIX

Edward VII., 1901-1910

(Married Alexandra of Denmark)

Principal Persons :

Lord Roberts; Lord Kitchener; General Botha; Lord Salisbury;
Arthur J. Balfour; Joseph Chamberlain; Sir H. Campbell-Bannerman; H. H. Asquith; D. Lloyd George.

Principal Dates :

1901. Accession of Edward VII.
1902. End of the Boer War.
1902-1905. Balfour Ministry.
1906-1908. Campbell-Bannerman Ministry. ,
1908-1910 Asquith Ministry.
1909. Budget rejected by House of Lords.
1910. Federation of South Africa. Death of Edward VII.

1. Edward VII. was nearly sixty when he became king. His father, Prince Albert, had died when he was quite a young man, and for nearly forty years he had helped his mother, Queen Victoria, by going about the country to act on her behalf. He had been a great traveller and knew every part of the empire. Hitherto he had taken little part in politics. He was shrewd, kindly, easy-going, tactful, and open-minded. He took his position as a constitutional king very seriously, and, though very careful to keep to himself his views about party politics, he made his influence felt in many different ways. He travelled about Europe, visiting kings and presidents, and welcomed them to England when they in their turn paid visits to him. He worked hard and successfully to make England more friendly with foreign

Character of
Edward VII.

countries, and was the better able to do this, since a large number of foreign rulers were closely akin to him



Photo: W. and D. Downey,

57 Ebury Street, S.W.

King Edward VII.

or to his wife, Queen Alexandra. He did so much to keep the world at peace that before his death men

called him Edward the Peacemaker. Besides the old royal titles, he took the new one of "King of the British dominions beyond the seas."

2. The first important event of the new reign was the conclusion of the Boer War. Before the queen died, Lord Roberts had taken Bloemfontein and Pretoria, the capitals of the two Boer states, and had broken up the chief Boer armies. Nevertheless, the Boers still kept on fighting, and showed wonderful resourcefulness in cutting off British supplies, and defeating scattered fragments of the British army. Lord Roberts had now gone home, and Lord Kitchener became the chief English general. He skilfully conquered the country bit by bit, and gradually compelled the Boers to surrender. At last, the Boers saw that it was useless to resist any longer, and in 1902 they agreed to end the war. Thus the Boer republics became subject to the British crown.

3. The restoration of peace did not end the troubles of South Africa. Trade had been ruined by the war, and it was difficult to obtain enough black workmen for the mines of the Transvaal. It was not easy for the English and Dutch, so recently engaged in fighting each other, to live side by side. Gradually, however, the state of things improved. In 1906 both the Transvaal and the Orange River were allowed to govern themselves as freely as any other British colony. In 1910, the two old Boer states were joined together with Cape Colony and the other British lands in South Africa, in a federal government after the fashion of British North America and Australia. It was a striking proof that the old feuds were being forgotten when Louis Botha, who had been the chief general of the Boer armies during the war, became the first Prime Minister of the Transvaal, and then, after federation, the first Prime Minister of United South Africa.

End of Boer War.

The Federation of South Africa.

4 During the first half of Edward VII.'s reign the Unionists were the strongest party in Parliament and still



Photo: W. and D. Downey,

51 Ebury Street, S.W.

Queen Alexandra.

governed the country Lord Salisbury, who had been Prime Minister since 1895, resigned in 1902, because his

health was giving way, and died soon afterwards. His successor was his nephew, Arthur J. Balfour, who remained in office until 1905. During these years the ministers had many difficulties to face, and gradually lost their favour with the people. Perhaps their best work was in improving the relations of Britain with foreign countries. They ended many long-standing disputes with France, and persuaded the French to recognise the British occupation of Egypt. Gradually a close alliance between the two countries took the place of the old attitude of coolness and suspicion. Ministers had a difficult part to play when war broke out between Japan and Russia in the Far East. The Japanese defeated the Russians both by sea and land, and forced them to make a peace which gave Japan all she asked for. During the war a Russian fleet, steaming through the North Sea on its way to Japan, fired upon a harmless fleet of English trawlers, which they mistook for Japanese torpedo boats, and slew several fishermen. The indignation excited by this outrage turned British sympathy towards Japan, but it was made clear that the slaughter of the fishermen was due to blunder and panic, and not to design, and ultimately England accepted compensation for the offence.

5. The ministers now began to disagree among each other. Joseph Chamberlain, the Colonial Secretary, declared that the system of free trade, which Peel and Gladstone had established, was working badly. He therefore upheld what he called *Tariff Reform*, and urged that a tax, or duty, should be put upon manufactured goods sent from foreign countries into Britain. He hoped by this to help British manufacturers, many of whom, he said, were losing trade in the home market because foreigners were offering for sale in England goods similar to theirs at a cheaper rate. Chamberlain was still more anxious to

The Salisbury
and Balfour
ministries.

Chamberlain
and Tariff
Reform.

give the dominions overseas advantages over foreigners in trading with us. Thus he wished to allow the corn of Canada, and the meat and wool of Australia to come into the country more cheaply than similar commodities from foreign lands, hoping that in return the colonies would put lower taxes on our manufactures than those of other countries. He called this *colonial preference*, and believed that it would be the means of binding the different parts of the British empire more closely together. He found little active support among the ministers, and strong opposition from the Liberals. At last he resigned his post, and threw all his energies into going about the country and preaching *tariff reform* and *colonial preference*. He gradually won over most of the Unionists, including the Prime Minister. The strongest free-traders among the Conservative ministers gave up their posts, but the ministry was now thoroughly disunited and disheartened. At last, in 1905, Balfour resigned, and the Liberals came back to office.

6. Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman now became Prime Minister, and among his colleagues were H. H. Asquith as Chancellor of the Exchequer, and the eloquent Welsh leader, David Lloyd George. As the majority in the House of Commons was still Conservative. Parliament was dissolved, and a new general election held early in 1906. Never in recent history did any British party win such an overwhelming victory as that now gained by the Liberals. The elections made it clear that the last government was thoroughly mistrusted, and that everywhere, except in Birmingham and its neighbourhood, the cause of Tariff Reform had made little way. In the new House of Commons there were five hundred supporters of the government, and only one hundred and fifty Unionists. The Liberals, therefore, remained in office for the rest

The Campbell-Bannerman and Asquith ministries.

of the King's reign. In 1908 Campbell-Bannerman was compelled to resign by ill-health, and soon afterwards died. Asquith became Prime Minister in his stead, and gave the Chancellorship of the Exchequer to Lloyd George.

7. In foreign affairs the new ministers took up a very similar line to their predecessors. While keeping up the friendship with France, brought about by the Conservatives, they managed also to bring about better relations with Russia and Germany, King Edward giving his ministers very valuable assistance in this matter. In colonial affairs we have seen already how they gave free institutions to the Boer colonies, and brought about the union of South Africa. In home legislation they were less successful, and failed to carry all their chief proposals through the House of Commons. Some of the most important of their bills, which the Commons passed, were, however, thrown out by the House of Lords, where the Conservatives had an even more overwhelming majority than the Liberals in the House of Commons. At last, in 1909, the House of Lords rejected the budget, or plan of taxation for the next year, proposed by Lloyd George, whose scheme was to put much heavier taxes on very rich people than they had previously paid. To throw out a budget was an unheard of thing for the Lords to do, since it had long been held that the business of taxation belonged to the Commons only. However, the Lords did not claim to destroy the budget altogether, but said that they would not pass it until the country had been asked whether it approved of it or not.

8. To settle the dispute between the Lords and the Liberals, a general election was held early in 1910. The Liberals said that they could not go on governing the country if the House of Lords stopped all their proposals. They therefore declared that the Lords' control

over finance must be absolutely ended, and their power of stopping new laws greatly reduced. The chief thing, therefore, that the electors had to decide was whether the ministers or the Lords were right. The difficulty was that there were many other questions to be decided besides that of the House of Lords. Tariff Reform was now strongly upheld by the Conservatives, though they had suffered a great loss by Chamberlain having broken down in health, and being unable to take any real part in politics. In the end the Liberals again won the day, though they lost many seats, and had to depend for their majority on the support of the Irish party rulers, whose real object was Home Rule for Ireland, and the new Labour party, whose chief object was to secure social reform. However, all sections of the majority were united against the House of Lords, so that, when the new Parliament met, the Liberals were able to force the House of Lords to accept their budget, and also to pass resolutions through the Commons called the *Veto Resolutions*. By these the Commons declared that the House of Lords should not be allowed to interfere in matters of taxation like the budget, and that the Lords' power to stop laws should be so limited that any measure desired by the Commons might become law, despite the peers, after two or three years. These proposals raised the whole question whether Parliament should consist of two Houses or one. Before, however, the dispute had gone very far, the sudden death of King Edward put an end to the fierce struggle of parties. He was succeeded by his son, George V.

CHAPTER XL

George V. and the Great War, 1910-1918 (Married Mary of Teck)

Principal Persons:

H. H. Asquith; D. Lloyd George; A. Bonar Law; Arthur J. Balfour; Lord Kitchener; Generals French, Haig, Maude, and Allenby; Admiral Beatty; Marshal Foch; Woodrow Wilson, President of the United States; William II., the German Emperor; Nicholas II., Tsar of Russia; General Hindenburg.

Principal Dates:

1910. Accession of George v.
1911. The Parliament Act.
1914-1918. The War against Germany.
1910-1915. Asquith Ministry.
1916-1918. Lloyd George Coalition Ministry.
1918. Parliamentary Reform Act.

1. George V. was the second and only surviving son of Edward VII. and was forty-five years old when he became king. He had been educated as a sailor, but gave up the navy when his brother's death made him heir to the throne. He married his cousin, Princess Mary of Teck. It was the first time for over three hundred years that both king and queen had been born in England. In 1917 the king repudiated for himself and his kinsfolk all foreign titles and declared that his family was to be styled the House of Windsor.

George V.
and the
House of
Windsor.

2. When George became king, the Lords and Commons were still engaged in fierce quarrels with each other. An attempt was made to patch up a compromise in the dispute as to the powers of the House of Lords, but it broke down. Thereupon the Asquith government dissolved Parliament, after it had only been a few months

The second
general
election of
1910.

in existence. But the new House of Commons, elected in December, 1910, contained exactly the same number



Photo: Russell & Sons.]

King George v.

of members of each party as the old one. There were as many Conservatives as Liberals returned, so that

they balanced each other. The ministers, therefore, depended for their majority on the support of the Irish Home Rulers and the Labour members.

3. The government was still able to carry its measures through the Commons, and send them up to the Lords. Four of these proposals attracted much attention. One was the *Parliament Bill* which denied to the Lords the power to reject or alter a money bill, and declared that any other bill, if passed by the Commons, during three successive years, was to become law at the end of that period, whether the Lords accepted it or threw it out. It also reduced to five years the duration of a parliament. Another was a *National Insurance Bill* which gave all workers support from the State when they were ill or out of work. A third was a bill for disestablishing and disendowing the Church in Wales, and the fourth was a new bill for *Home Rule for Ireland*. Of these four bills the Lords only accepted the *Parliament Bill* and the *National Insurance Bill*, which thus became law at once. They rejected both the Welsh Bill and the Irish Bill. But the Commons sent up these bills to them both the second and the third time. According to the Parliament Act, both should have become law by the end of 1914 despite the Lords' opposition.

The Parliament and the Insurance Acts.

4. The prospect of Home Rule being established in Ireland created great alarm among most of the Irish Protestants, and especially among those in Eastern Ulster where the Protestants were in a majority. The Ulstermen said that Parliament had no right to bring them under the government of the rest of Ireland, for it meant their being ruled by men with whom they had no sympathy or agreement. They bound themselves together by a solemn covenant to resist Home Rule by force, and drilled and armed a large number of Ulster Volunteers to execute

The Resistance to Home Rule.

the threat. The Nationalists, following their example, set up a host of National Volunteers to enforce Home Rule. Thus Ireland was divided into two armed camps, each getting ready to fight the other.

5. The only way out seemed to be to give Home Rule to the part of Ireland where the majority wished for

The Amend-
ing Bill and
the Sus-
pensory Act.

it and to exclude from its operation the districts where opinion was largely against it. But the Irish Nationalists declared that Ireland must be treated as a single whole, and that Eastern Ulster must be forced to fall in with the desires of the majority of Irishmen. They, therefore, insisted on the government carrying the Home Rule Bill through the Commons for the third time in 1914, and opposed the *Amending Bill* in which Asquith proposed to allow any counties, where the majority voted against Home Rule, to be excluded from its operation. Even after the outbreak of war, the Home Rule Bill was still pressed on, but a *Suspensory Act* held up its operation and also that of the Welsh Bill until the war had come to an end. The Amending Bill was dropped altogether.

6. Before this stage was reached, a great trouble burst upon the whole world which made disputes about

Causes of
the Great
War.

Irish Home Rule and Welsh disestablishment seem trivial. This was the outbreak of war with Germany on August 4, 1914.

The struggle arose from the desire of Germany to be mistress of the whole world, and the natural resistance which such a claim excited. Ever since her victory over France in 1870-1, Germany had become much more prosperous and powerful. She had won a great share in the world's carrying trade, had set up a great navy, had established colonies and had become a manufacturing country. At the same time she continued to be the chief military power and by making friends with Austria and Italy had set up a *Triple*

Alliance through which she hoped to rule Europe. This union of the central powers was the more effective since Germany dexterously kept alive the old jealousies which had divided Britain, France and Russia. Under Edward VII. the position of the Austro-German Alliance had become so menacing that Russia and France were forced to form a *Dual Alliance* against it. Both alliances armed to the teeth and prepared for a possible war. But Britain, alone of the great powers, tried to keep out of the fetters of the two rival leagues. Gradually, however, she found herself compelled to show her strong sympathy with the Dual Alliance, and to settle her old disputes with the French and Russians. Yet Britain still hoped to live on friendly terms with Germany and made no serious attempt to get ready an adequate army to defend her position. Time after time Europe seemed on the verge of war, but matters were somehow smoothed over, and most men hoped that the threatened fires would never break out. At last new troubles arose which showed that the armed peace of the West was not likely to last much longer.

7. Germany became more and more envious of the commercial and colonial greatness of Britain. She strove hard to set herself up as her rival in trade and on the sea. As a step towards this she made close friends with Turkey where in 1909 a revolution had established in power a party, called the *Young Turks*, which professed to have sympathy with western ways and was glad to have the support of Germany. With Turkish help Germany hoped to make herself mistress of the Near East, and built railways which might carry her armies to India and Egypt. But the Young Turks misgoverned their Christian subjects as badly as the Sultan had done. At last the people in the parts of the Balkan lands still ruled by the Turks rose up in revolt

The Balkan League and the Eastern ambitions of Germany.

against their oppressors. In 1912 a *Balkan League* was formed by the Christian states that had gradually thrown off the Turkish yoke. The League came to the rescue of their brethren still under Turkish rule and succeeded in driving the Turks out of all their remaining possessions in Europe, except a small district round Constantinople. This was very displeasing to Germany and Austria, who were the more annoyed since their ally Italy had also gone to war against Turkey and had further reduced her power. At the same time Germany sought to drive the French out of Morocco. She gave up this attempt when Britain threatened to come to the help of the French: but her failures, both in the East and the West, convinced her that she could only obtain her way by running the risk of a European war. A great change now came over German policy. The Emperor William made everything ready for fighting. The powers opposed to Germany, who neither wished nor expected war, were quite unprepared to resist him.

8. A pretext for war soon came in June, 1914, when the heir of the Austrian throne was murdered by a Serbian fanatic, and Austria accused Serbia of instigating the crime. This was an excuse for Austria to attack Serbia, which was closely allied with Russia and was hated by Austria since a great many of her Slavonic subjects wished to be joined with Serbia in a single South Slavonic kingdom. Russia got ready to aid Serbia, whereupon Germany ordered Russia to cease her military preparations under threat of immediate war. On Russia's refusal, Germany and Austria went to war against her. This attack compelled France to go to the help of Russia. Thus a general European war broke out. A few days later Germany marched her troops through Belgium as the easiest way of reaching France. She disregarded the protests of the Belgians and was careless of the promise which Prussia, like the other powers,

The out-
break of
the Great
War.

had entered upon, always to treat Belgium as a neutral state. Britain strongly objected to this, but was told that the treaty which guaranteed Belgian neutrality was but a scrap of paper, and that Germany intended to do anything that made it easier for her to win a rapid victory. Thereupon, on 4 August, Britain joined France and Russia in resisting the aggression of the Central Powers.

9. The German plan of campaign was to crush France quickly and then conquer Russia at her leisure. At first nearly everything went as Germany wished. Belgium was easily overrun and ^{The Battle of the Marne.} France invaded from the north. The little British force of 150,000 men, under General French, joined the French, but the Germans came on in such numbers and with so many guns that they drove the French and English before them and advanced beyond the River Marne to within 40 miles of Paris. Then a new French army fell upon the German right, while the troops that had been driven in retreat made a wonderful rally. After a long fierce fight called the *Battle of the Marne* (September), the Germans in their turn were compelled to give way. Before long, however, they dug themselves into strong positions and stayed the enemies' advance.

10. The character of the war then changed. The Germans had failed to win a speedy decision, but the allies had not been strong enough to prevent them occupying nearly all Belgium and a great part of Northern France. But the war ^{The trench warfare in the West.} of rapid movement was now succeeded by a war of trenches in which each side stood on the defensive against the other. A long line of earthworks soon stretched from the North Sea to the Swiss frontier, and vast armies, millions strong, strove, though to little purpose, to find the weak places in their enemies' position. This state of things went on for three years. Sometimes the Germans, sometimes the allies gained the

advantage; but each advance was won at enormous cost and did little to settle the question as to which side would prevail in the end. As years went on, it seemed as if things would result in a drawn battle. But the long struggle imposed the severest strain on both sides. There was, then, a chance of the less resolute party collapsing altogether.

11. There was equal activity and more changes of fortune in other fields of war. On the eastern front of the Central Powers the fortunes of war swayed violently from side to side. The war on the Russian front. The Russians pushed their troops deep into the heart of Austria, but Germany, which had easily withstood Russian invasion, came to the help of her distressed ally. Russia had then to face invasion, and soon the long Austro-German line, running from the Baltic to the frontiers of Rumania, moved steadily eastwards. But treachery and incompetence had undermined the power of Russia, and the weak Tsar, Nicholas II., was quite unable to set matters straight. In 1917 he was driven from his throne and a Russian republic set up. This revolution only made matters worse, for power soon fell into the hands of blood-thirsty fanatics called *Bolsheviks*, who misruled the country, threw over her allies, and concluded a shameful peace with Germany and Austria. The result of this was that the eastern armies of the Central Powers were able to come to the help of their forces in France and Belgium.

12. Turkey soon declared herself on the side of the Central Powers, who hoped to gain through her dominions access to Egypt and British India. The war in the south-east and in Asia. To avert this danger an allied force landed in 1915, on the shores of the *Dardanelles*. The troops showed magnificent courage, but their numbers were insufficient and the expedition was badly directed. After nine months of heroic

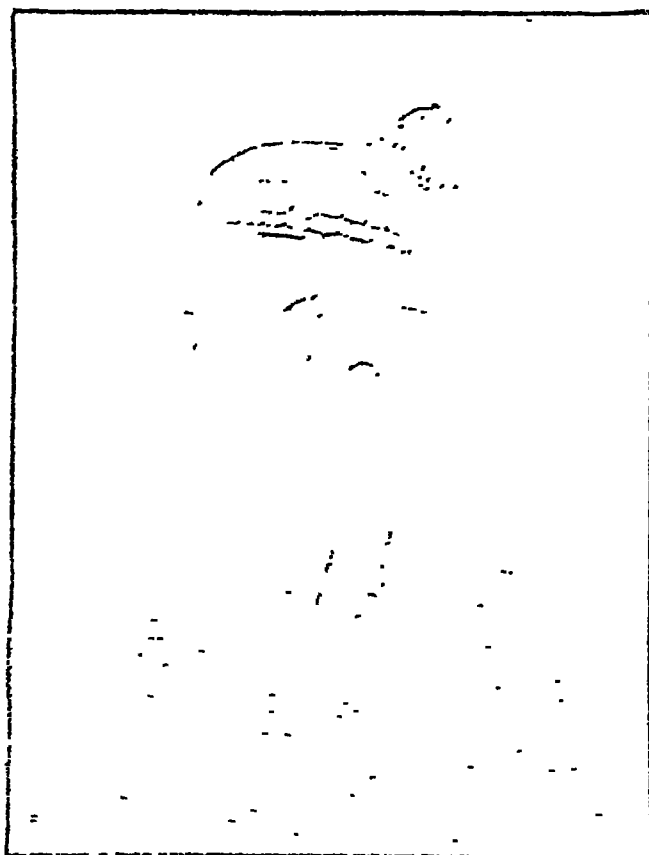


Photo. Russell & Son.

LORD BL'ITY.

struggle, the army was safely withdrawn. Another force, sent up the Persian Gulf to invade Mesopotamia, made good progress at first, but early in 1916 its advanced sections were taken prisoners by the Turks at *Kut-el-Amara*. Things were made worse in the East by Bulgaria joining with Austria in conquering Serbia. The King of Greece, a brother-in-law of the German Emperor, wanted to join his kinsman's side, but a revolution drove him from power. Before this a British and French force had occupied Salonica, the chief port of Macedonia, now a part of Greece. For a long time it was unable to do anything effective to punish Bulgaria or rescue Serbia. Greece, Rumania, and Italy declared for the allies. But it was long before the Greeks could prepare their armies, and Rumania was, after the Russian collapse, easily overrun by the Germans. Italy's declaration of war against Germany in 1916 was a clear gain. The Italian attack soon occupied the Austrian armies, and prevented them being any use to the Germans in the West.

13. There was a struggle on the seas even more vital to England than the land campaigns. At first the Germans won some successes on the ocean, raided the English coast, destroyed merchant ships, and cut to pieces a weak British squadron off Chile. But before long British naval supremacy was decisively asserted. After Admiral Jellicoe's victory off *Jutland* in 1916, the German fleet was afraid to leave its harbours, and the war between great battle-ships was at an end. As a result of this, the ocean was free to the transports which carried the allied armies all over the world, and the German colonies in Africa, Asia, and the Pacific were gradually conquered.

The war
at sea.

14. A worse trial to British naval supremacy now ensued from the German use of the submarine and the mine. These new weapons of war made it impossible

for Britain to blockade the German ports after the old fashion, and exposed every ship sailing on the ocean to the danger of being blown up by unseen enemies, who evaded the British navy by navigating under the water. At one time there was a serious danger of the British islands being starved out by reason of the large number of merchant ships destroyed by German submarines. Neutral as well as enemy ships were torpedoed at sight, and thousands of passengers and peaceful sailors were done to death by this new and ferocious method of warfare. This was part of the deliberate German policy of ruthlessness by which she believed she would terrorize the world into submission. In the same spirit the Germans shut up in prison all enemy subjects found travelling in Germany at the outbreak of the war, ill-treated both these and her military prisoners, and sent great airships and aeroplanes to drop bombs at random on enemies' territory. But such misdeeds, though adding immensely to the sum of human misery, did nothing to secure victory for the Germans. The allies effectively answered them by stopping all the sea-borne trade of their enemies. Moreover they gradually devised means of protection which made the submarine war very dangerous to the German sailors engaged in it. Disgust at German methods stiffened the resistance of the allies and angered the neutral powers which suffered by it. The chief of these was the United States of America. Finding remonstrances against the German methods useless, the American President, Woodrow Wilson, at last took the strong step of declaring war against the Central Powers.

15. One reason why the war lasted so long was that Germany was ready, while the allies were not. Even France had not expected war to come; but France had a great national army that did not take very long to put out its full strength. Britain had but a very small

army to begin with, and the United States had practically no army at all. Nothing is so wonderful in all the war as the way in which the two great English-speaking countries set to work to build up vast national armies, so that they could take an equal share with the French and Italians in defending their liberties from the Germans. The result was that the war came to be fought on a scale larger than that of any previous war. The armies numbered many millions of soldiers. Britain and her dominions alone raised more than six million troops, including large contingents which came from Canada, Australia, and the other self-governing dominions. A great part was also played by the soldiers of India, especially in the campaigns against the Turks. Within less than two years from their joining the war, the United States sent nearly two millions of men to Europe.

The mighty efforts of Britain and her allies.

16. It was very gradually that these new forces were available. On the British side everything had to be done from the beginning, and events showed that the British system of government was but ill-adapted to face the difficulties created by a state of universal warfare. The Asquith ministry did its best, and by calling on Lord Kitchener to act as minister of war secured that the raising of the new army was entrusted to the most famous British soldier. But the deadlock in the West and the disasters in the East showed that everything had not yet been done to bring about victory. On two occasions it was found desirable to reconstitute the ministry. The first reconstruction was in 1915 when the opposition leaders took office under Asquith. Among them were A. J. Balfour and Bonar Law, who had since 1911 become leader of the Conservatives in succession to Balfour. The most important new steps were, however, the establishment of

The Asquith National Ministry.

a Ministry of Munitions under Lloyd George, and the adoption of compulsory service for the army. Thus sufficient shells and arms were provided for the vast British armies and an adequate supply of soldiers to man them.

17 Kitchener perished at sea when the ship on which he was travelling to Russia was blown up by a stray mine. Thereupon Lloyd George became minister of war. His rare gifts of imagination and insight soon marked him out as the best leader of the nation at war. In 1916 Asquith resigned office, and Lloyd George became Prime Minister of a national Coalition, intent on winning the war. Great changes were made in the direction of army and navy. New departments were set up to supply war needs, control the food supply, and build new ships to replace those blown up by German submarines. The State took up the control of everything. Though huge mistakes were made, the result was to throw the whole energies of the nation into the prosecution of the war. Thus the greatest crisis of modern history was met by exertions worthy of the time.

18. It was with renewed hope that the allies went into the campaign of 1917. Yet so far as the West was concerned these hopes were doomed to disappointment. In the spring and summer a considerable advance was made both by the British armies, now commanded by General Douglas Haig, and by their French allies. But the losses they suffered were enormous, and in the autumn the Germans, reinforced by their troops from the East, once more began to move forward and reconquer the ground they had lost. The Italian line was broken by the Austrians, who thereupon invaded and conquered the northern eastern provinces of Italy. It was only in the East that the main tide of battle turned. In Mesopotamia the fall of Kut was avenged by General

The Lloyd
George
Coalition
Ministry.

The Cam-
paigns of
1917.

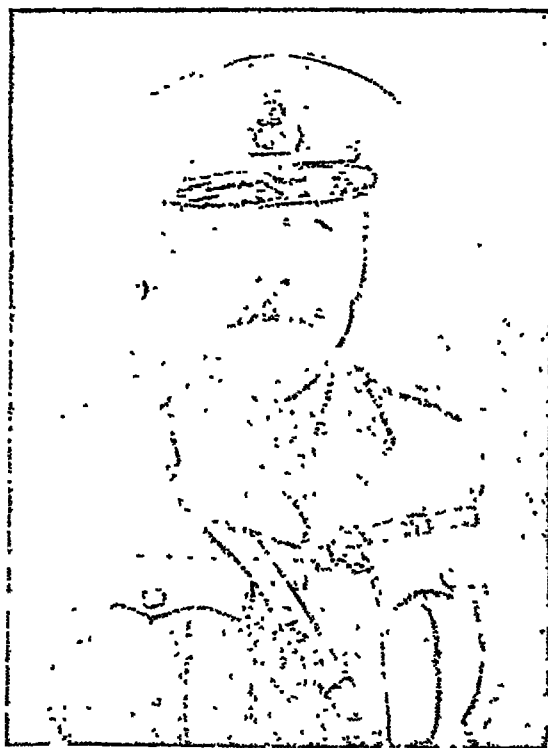


Photo: Bassano.

LORD HAIG.



Photo: Melcy.

MARSHAL FOCH.

Maude, who marched up the Tigris and captured *Bagdad*. The British army in Egypt invaded Palestine, and, under General Allenby, soon made good progress. But the most decisive event in favour of the allies in 1917 was the declaration of war by the United States. The adhesion of America more than outbalanced the falling away of Russia.

19. At the beginning of 1918 the state of things in the West looked almost as bad as in the autumn of 1914. The game of the Germans was now once more to force the pace. Accordingly they tried to smash up the French and British armies before America could send a strong force to help them. The enemy nearly succeeded in carrying out their purpose. Between March and June they gained a wonderful series of victories, which threatened to cut the French off from the British and to drive the British back on to the Channel ports in two broken divisions. They drove a deep wedge into the British army in Flanders, and marched down the Somme, threatening Amiens. At the same time they advanced against the French down the Oise and southwards over the Marne, getting dangerously near to Paris, both on the north and on the east.

The last
German
successes.

20. The real trouble with the allies was that, though their soldiers had shown extreme bravery, each army had fought for its own hand, and there had been no single mind to direct and plan the whole campaign. Lloyd George now insisted that a single general-in-chief should be appointed with power to command the soldiers of the many nations fighting in France. He was severely opposed, but persevered until he had got his way. Marshal Foch was then chosen as supreme commander, General Haig loyally falling in with the new position. The effects of the change soon made themselves felt. They came more quickly since the allies, though defeated, had never

The Unity
of Command.

lost confidence or courage, and now, despite submarines, hundreds of thousands of fresh American soldiers were convoyed over the ocean by the British fleet, and were taking up their posts beside the war-worn veterans of France and Britain.

21. Foch bided his time, and did not strike until all his plans were ready. But in the middle of July the French fell upon the advancing Germans, massed some fifty miles east of Paris, and drove them back, after fierce fighting, in the *second battle of the Marne*. This battle was as fatal to the last advance of the Germans as was the first battle of the Marne to their original effort to snatch a hasty triumph. Thereupon the British renewed their offensive with success equally great. By the end of September the line of 1917 was more than restored.

22. Then came about a wonderful collapse of the enemy, both in the East and in the West. In the East it was the less unexpected, since 1917 had already seen the beginnings of the break-up of the Turkish army. But in 1918 the British army in Mesopotamia found it easy to advance as far as it liked. In Palestine Allenby outmanœuvred the Turks by great encircling movements of his strong force of cavalry, occupied Jerusalem and Damascus, and finally by the conquest of Aleppo cut off the Turks in Mesopotamia from their base. More surprising still was the awakening of the Macedonian army from its long inactivity, and the rapid collapse of the enemy before it. On 20 September Bulgaria, seeing that the game was up, made an unconditional surrender. A month later, Turkey also laid down her arms on the conditions imposed by the allies. Thus the Eastern designs of the Central Powers were entirely frustrated.

23. The surrender of Bulgaria and Turkey made Austria unable to hold her own any longer in the Balkan lands. Serbia, her victim, was now swiftly

reconquered by the Macedonian force of the allies. Then the Italians advanced against the Austrian invaders of Italy, and soon drove them with enormous losses back over their own frontiers. Austria, face to face with invasion, was also brought to her knees by a revolt of her own Slavonic subjects. The Austro-Hungarian empire, where minorities of Germans and Hungarians had long ruled harshly over Slav majorities, collapsed under the strain. On 3 November she signed an armistice which left her helpless in the hands of the allies. Thereupon revolution broke out within her empire, and each of the many nations, which had been uneasily united under her sway, sought to build up an independent state of its own.

The Collapse
of Austria.

24. The most vital result of the surrender of Bulgaria, Turkey, and Austria was to leave Germany alone to fight against the world in arms. Already her soldiers had fallen back to the so-called *Hindenburg line*, built by their most famous leader, general Hindenburg, and believed to be so strong as to defy capture. But the allies broke through the boasted defences of the Germans, despite the stubborn courage with which they still continued to fight. So hard pressed were the Germans that by October they begged President Wilson to bring about peace, but he sternly answered that they must first yield up their conquests and give proof that their word could be trusted before negotiations could begin. Meanwhile the allies moved on from success to success. By the end of October, more than half Flanders was reconquered and France nearly cleared of her invaders. Then the Germans changed their government and besought the allies to grant them an armistice. At last they accepted the terms imposed upon them by Foch, and on 11 November, 1918, the last fighting came to an end. They allowed the allies to take possession

The Sub-
mission of
Germany.

of all their conquests, and of all Germany west of the Rhine; they surrendered their warships, their submarines, their guns, and their prisoners. A revolution in Germany, resulting in the flight of the emperor, completed the break-up of the German menace. Thus an armistice, the end of actual fighting, was happily brought about. The next step was to turn the armistice into a final peace.

25. A conference of the allies met at Paris to consider the terms on which peace should be made. Among

The Peace of Versailles. the statesmen there assembled were Lloyd George, President Wilson and the French

Prime Minister, Clemenceau. A vast task lay before them and many months passed before any definite results were arrived at. But in June, 1919, exactly five years after the murder of the Austrian heir had started the war, Germany unwillingly accepted at Versailles the conditions imposed upon her. They were fatal to the hopes with which the Germans had entered the war. Germany was to be content with a small army and navy; she was to pay as much as she could in compensation to the allies whom she had so deeply wronged. She was to restore to the French Alsace and Lorraine, which she had taken from France in 1871; she was to surrender all her colonies; she was to allow the Danes, Poles and her other non-German subjects to decide by voting whether they would or would not remain attached to Germany; she was even to give up the German city of Danzig to allow revived Poland to have a port of its own. Included in the peace was a plan for starting what was called the *League of Nations*, by which it was hoped to make future wars impossible, or at least extremely difficult.

26. The terms of peace with Austria were settled a few months later. They put in the place of the unwieldy Austrian Empire several national states, and

gave to Italy not only most of Italian Austria, but some German-speaking lands as well. Peace with Turkey and the East has still to be arranged.

The outbreak of revolutions in many lands ^{The European outlook.} and the terrible distress and depression,

resulting from the prolonged struggle, make the prospects of the future still doubtful. But the fearful war has at least taught the West the lesson of the hideousness and wastefulness of war. Unhappily there is little sign that the fierce and crude people of the East have equally learnt this lesson, and fighting still continues in Eastern Europe. Such a state of things make the prospect of a successful starting of the hoped-for League of Nations more difficult than many people had expected. Yet we must not despair too easily of the future, though we may feel distressed that events move so slowly. Modern war is so fearful a thing, and is fought on so mighty a scale, that years must pass before things become easy and natural again. The war will not, however, have been fought in vain, seeing that German domination has been utterly destroyed, and that the worst of the old governments which made the rule of might possible have perished in the revolutions that have followed the struggle.

27. The immense efforts made by Britain were the more wonderful, since the Lloyd George government did not limit itself to carrying on the war.

It also undertook to deal with many pressing ^{British Home Reforms during the war.} home problems as well. It was successful

in passing some important new laws on which the nation was fairly well agreed. Conspicuous among them was the *Education Act* of 1918, by which a great step forward was made in the provision of a national system of education, and adequate funds were for the first time promised for the worthy carrying out of this task. In the same year a new *Reform Act* was passed by which the number of voters at

parliamentary elections was greatly increased, the districts returning members were rearranged on a nearer approach to equality, and votes were given to every woman over thirty years of age, who had the qualifications of a man voter or who was married to a voter. The first general election under the new system took place in December, 1918, and resulted in an overwhelming majority for Lloyd George and the Coalition.

28. War conditions made acute the long-standing question of the state of Ireland. In the early part of the war Ireland had sent a fair supply of recruits to the British armies, but before long an extreme party, called *Sinn Fein*, made great progress in that country. The supporters of this faction wished to make Ireland an independent republic, and despised the Nationalist party in Parliament because it was half-hearted and compromising. They were quite willing to call in the Germans to help Ireland, and German intriguers did their best to stir up risings against the British government. On Easter Monday, 1916, the Sinn Feiners rose in revolt in Dublin, and were only put down after much bloodshed. The rebellion made it necessary to rule Ireland by soldiers in order to maintain order, but this still further increased Irish discontent and helped to make Sinn Fein more widely popular. Vain attempts were made to persuade Irish Nationalists and Unionists to agree upon a plan of Home Rule acceptable to both alike, but nothing came of these efforts, in which Sinn Fein scornfully refused to take any share. Meanwhile the Nationalists joined with the Sinn Feiners in denouncing any attempt to compel Irishmen to fight against the Germans. In their anxiety to please Ireland, ministers exempted the island from the operations of the Conscription Act, and, when later they took power to reverse this policy, they soon dropped all attempts to carry out compulsory service. They

Ireland and
Sinn Fein.

also allowed the over-representation of Ireland in proportion to its population to be continued in the Reform Act of 1918. But their frequent changes of front only added to the difficulties of the situation by giving the discontented Irish new grievances. It became clear that the Irish question could only be dealt with after the peace.

29. During the eighty years of the three reigns of Victoria, Edward VII., and George V., more changes have been brought about than perhaps in any ^{Progress} other period of British history. Yet most ^{under} of them have been worked out so gradually ^{Victoria,} that few people noticed that a revolution ^{Edward VII.,} ^{and George V.} was being accomplished under their eyes. The population has grown encrmously, and the national wealth has increased even more rapidly than the number of the people. Wonderful inventions were discovered which greatly increased man's control over matter. The *telegraph* has enabled men to flash messages to the other end of the world, and the *telephone* rendered it possible to hold conversation with people who are hundreds of miles away. Railways made journeys on land easier ; and while the poor man, when Victoria was young, could only travel by one slow train in the day, and that in open trucks exposed to the weather, he could under George V. make his journeys in comfortable expresses at convenient hours, while the more luxurious traveller could, if he liked, often eat his dinner or go to bed for the night during his journey. Fast steamships carried commerce to the remotest parts of the world, and allowed men to make ocean voyages at about the same rate of speed as their great-grand-fathers in Victoria's early years could travel by railway on land. Under Victoria the *bicycle* brought back traffic to the highways. Under Edward VII. the *motor car* has rivalled the railway train in speed. Under George V. the *aeroplane* has enabled man to

navigate the air with less risk than when he goes under the sea in a *submarine*.

30. During the whole period the British Dominions and empire have grown in numbers, prosperity, and unity. We have seen how in British North America, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa free Commonwealths have been established, with liberties so complete that each dominion has full power to develop on its own lines. Equally remarkable has been the growth of the resources and capacity of British India during the seventy years that have elapsed between the establishment of the direct supremacy of Queen Victoria and the end of the great war. Commerce and industry have been opened up; health has been improved; the land protected from the periodic scourge of famine; public order established, and a beginning made towards self-government. Much still remains to be done, but real progress has already been made. The response of India has corresponded to the effort, and in the great crisis of the German War India has vied with the self-governing dominions in her contribution to imperial defence.

31. Both in Britain and in the Empire there has been progress in things deeper than material prosperity. Many writers have flourished whose works will not readily be forgotten, and whose writings are now read by millions when in earlier ages they would only have been open to thousands. Learning and science have progressed marvellously; and, largely through the teaching of *Charles Darwin*, a new way of looking at nature and man has grown up, and become generally accepted. But what was in some ways best of all was that there has been a steady improvement in the condition of the mass of the people. In Britain and the Dominions alike wages have risen and men's lives have become easier and more comfortable. In the early years of Victoria's reign many workmen

could hardly get enough bread to eat. But their sons and grandsons have won by their own efforts a stronger and better position. By forming *trades-unions*, or combinations among themselves, workmen have found out the means of bargaining on equal terms with their employers, and thus obtaining the wages to which they are justly entitled. Four Reform Bills have given them the control of the destinies of the empire, and all recent British history has shown that those destinies are safe in their hands. Education has given them better opportunities of using their faculties, and is becoming open not only to the rich or a few privileged individuals, but to nearly every boy or girl who has brains enough to use his chances. Though it is still too early for us to make out clearly what were the chief events of the last two British reigns, two things are pretty plainly becoming of very great importance. One is that men are beginning to try to pass laws to make the mass of the people in the islands better educated, better cared for, and better able to live happy and useful lives. The other is that the lands all over the world, included under the rule of the British Crown, are making, and in the future will make, increasing calls on the attention of mankind. The alliance of the British Empire and the United States saved Europe from German domination.

32. As a result of all these changes, the peoples of the British Empire are becoming richer, healthier, better educated, and in some ways wiser. So much has been done to improve the state of the country that at first sight there is a danger of being too proud of the progress made. But there is still plenty to be done before the kingdom and the empire are all that they should be. British prosperity has made other nations jealous, and Britons by no means always show as much tact, modesty, and power of understanding other people's position as might be wished for. They spend

too much of their wealth on luxury and self-indulgence, and on drink and display. There are still among them far too much poverty, ignorance, wickedness, and carelessness of higher things. They may well have in the future to face much severer competition in trade and commerce from foreign powers than they have done in the past, and they have not always done their best to educate themselves for this inevitable contest. They should not, therefore, look on the present condition of affairs with too much satisfaction. They should rather learn from the struggles and efforts of those who have gone before them to brace themselves up anew to continue their work. While they have every reason to be proud of the great part which their country has played in history, and never more proud than at the moment that they are emerging victorious from the severest struggle that Britain has ever had to face, they should never forget to learn from the example of their ancestors to do all that in them lies to make things better. There is no surer way than the study of the national history to make Britons realise the high responsibilities which fall upon even the humblest citizen of one of the greatest empires that the world has ever seen. But they must not be puffed up with national pride. The union of the free nations against the Germans has alone made it possible for them to secure the victory. Not only by the co-operation of man and man within the nation, but still more by the working together of nation with nation, state with state, will the brotherhood of humanity be attained and the freedom of the world put upon a solid basis.

INDEX

- ABBAY, Battle, 48**
 — Westminster, 45, 46, 49, 51, etc.,
See Westminster.
Abbeys, destruction of, 210; suppression of, 207-209.
Abbots, the, 54, 104.
Abolition of the Slave trade, 362-364, 377, 378.
Act for Catholic Emancipation, 371.
 — Education (1870), 395, (1918), 431.
 — Irish Land, 394, 401.
 — Municipal Corporation Reform (1835), 377.
 — against Lollards, 161.
 — Reform. *See* Bill.
 — of Security, 317.
 — Septennial, 325.
 — of Settlement, 305, 318.
 — of Stamp, 345, 347.
 — of Supremacy, 226.
 — Test, 294, 300; repeal of, 371.
 — Toleration, 304.
 — of Union (Ireland), 317-319, 360.
Adelaide of Meiningen, wife of William IV., 374.
Adriatic, the, 89.
Ælla King, 20.
Aeroplanes, the, 424, 433.
Africa, 236, 363, 423.
 — South, 404-406, 434.
 — United South, 409.
Age of Reason, the, 335.
Agincourt, battle of, 145-166, 242. *See* Battle.
Agriculture, 51, 122, 123.
Airships, 424.
Albert of Coburg, Prince Consort of Victoria, 379, 380, 407.
Aldermen, in Witenagemot, 54.
Aleppo, 428.
Alexander III., king of Scots, 115.
Alexandra, Queen, 407, 408.
Alfred the Great, king of the West Saxons, 28-34, 35, 39, 52, 69.
Alleghany Mountains, 337.
Allenby, General, 427, 428.
Alps, the, 89.
Alsace, 430.
Altars, 265.
Amending Bill (Home Rule), 418.
America, 187, 235, 236, 238, 253, 255, 259, 326, 336, 345-350, 352, 353, 355, 358, 359, 363, 377, 403; colonies in, 252, 253, 290, 336; discovery of, 187, 235; loss of, 377, 403; Methodists in, 336; Slave-trade to, 363; Spanish, 380; taxation in, 345, 347; war with, 345-350, 352, 355, 358, 359; British North, 409, 434. *See also* United States and Canada.
Amiens, 427.
 — treaty of, 356, 357.
Angevins, the, 70, 92. *See* Anjou.
Angles, the, 14, 15, 16, 20.
Anglia, East, 16, 28, 31, 57.
Anglo-Saxons, 15, 93.
Angoulême, Isabella of. *See* Isabella.
Anjou, Geoffrey, count of, 70, 73, 74.
 — Henry II. of, 71-80. *See* Henry II.
 — House of, 72.
 — lost by John, 92, 93.
 — Margaret of. *See* Margaret.
Anne, Queen, 310, 311-322, 344.
 — Boleyn. *See* Boleyn.
 — Hyde. *See* Hyde.
 — Neville, wife of Richard III., 177.
 — of Bohemia, queen of Richard II., 150.
 — of Cleves, fourth wife of Henry VIII., 196, 211, 212.
 — of Denmark, wife of James I., 250.
Ansolm, St., archbishop of Canterbury, 66, 69, 79, 81, 95, 130.
Anspach, Caroline of. *See* Caroline.
Anti-Corn Law League, 384.
Appeal, right of, to king's court, 116.
Aquitaine, 74, 85, 92, 116, 140, 145. *See also* Gascony and Guienne.
 — Dukes of, 74.
 — Eleanor of. *See* Eleanor.
Aragon, Catharine of. *See* Catharine.
 — Ferdinand of. *See* Ferdinand.
Arc, Joan of. *See* Joan of Arc.
Archbishopric of Canterbury, election to, 93-96.
Archers, 136, 144, 146, 165, 166.
Arches, round, pointed, etc. *See* Architecture.
Architecture in twelfth and thirteenth centuries, 102, 125-129, 132.
 — Anglo-Saxon, 129.
 — Norman, 45, 62, 63, 102, 126-129.
 — Gothic, 45, 46, 102, 126-129.
 — Early English, 128, 129.
 — Decorated, 129, 137.
 — Perpendicular, 184.
 — Elizabethan or Jacobean, 244, 245.
 — Classic and Italian style in, 291, 292.
Aristocracy, government by an, 307.
Ark Royal, the (ship), 240.
Armada, the Spanish, 239-242.
Arminians, the, 264, 265.
Arminius, 264.
Armour in twelfth and thirteenth centuries, 123, 130.
Armour in fifteenth century, 186.
Arms, Assize of. *See* Assize.

- Army, Alfred the Great's, 32.
 — the old English, 54.
 — in twelfth and thirteenth centuries, 130, 132.
 — Charles I.'s, 267, 268.
 — the, and Richard Cromwell, 284.
 — Cromwell and the, 274, 276.
 — Elizabeth's, 240.
 — the New Model, 274.
 — the Puritan, 237.
 — the regular, 237.
 — reform of the, 304.
 — the Scots, 272.
 Arrest of the Five Members, 270, 271.
 Arthur of Brittany, 91, 92.
 — Prince of Wales, son of Henry VII., 103.
 Articles, the Thirty-nine, 226.
 Ashley, Lord, 292. *See also* Shaftesbury, Earl of.
 Asquith, H. H., 407, 412, 413, 415, 418, 423, 426.
 Asin, 423.
 Assembly, the French National, 355, 357.
 Assize of Arms (1181), 78.
 — of Clarendon (1166), 77.
 — the Grand, 78.
 Assizes 77.
 — the Bloody, 300.
 Association, the Catholic, 371.
 Athelney, 28, 52.
 Athelstan, King, 36.
 Atlantic, the, 236, 314, 337, 367.
 Attainder, Bill of, 269.
 — of Strafford and Laud, 269.
 Augustine, St., archbishop of Canterbury, 20, 21, 23.
 Australia, 403, 404, 409, 412, 425, 434.
 — Commonwealth of, 404, 434.
 Austria and William III. against Louis XIV., 309.
 — threatened by France, 313.
 — joins Grand Alliance, 313.
 — and the War of Succession, 330, 331.
 — and the Seven-Years' War, 330.
 — at war with France, 355.
 — joins England against Napoleon, 360, 361.
 — against Napoleon, 366, 367.
 — Charles of. *See* Charles V.
 — Archduke Charles of, 313. *See* Charles VI.
 — in alliance with Germany and Italy, 418-419, 420.
 — Britain at war against, 421-422, 423, 424-425, 429, 430, 431.
 Austrian Succession War, the, 330, 331.
 Avon, river, 107, 180.
 BABINGTON, Anthony, 233.
 — Conspiracy, the, 233.
 Bacon, Sir Francis, Chancellor 247, 258.
 Badge, Family, 150, 179, 191-5.
 Bagdad, 427.
 Bagpipes, 332.
 Bailiff, the Lord's, 123.
 Balkan League, the, 420.
 Balclava, battle of, 390. *See* Battle.
 Balance of Power, the, 388, 389.
 Balfour, Arthur J., 407, 411, 412, 425.
 Balliol, Edward, son of John Balliol, 132, 140.
 — John, king of Scots, 116, 117.
 Ballot, election by, 382.
 Bannockburn, battle of, 135. *See* Battle.
 Baptists, the, 282, 289.
 Barbados, 252.
 Barbon, 281.
 Barchones' Parliament, 281. *See* Parliament.
 Barnet, battle of, 180. *See* Battle.
 Barons, the, 60, 65, 97, 103, 104, 106, 111, 115, 133-136, 178.
 — and John, 97.
 — and Henry III., 103.
 — Council of, 104.
 — and Montfort, 106.
 — and Parliament, 106.
 — and Edward I., 111.
 — the Scottish, and Edward I. 115.
 — and Edward II., 133-136.
 — and Henry VI., 178.
 Battle, trial by. *See* Trial.
 — Abbey, 48.
 Battles—
 Agincourt, 165-166, 242.
 Balclava, 390.
 Bannockburn, 135, 136, 144.
 Barnet, 180.
 Blenheim, 313, 314.
 Bosworth, 183.
 The Boyne, 307.
 Bunker's Hill, 347.
 Chalgrove Field, 272.
 Chile, 423.
 Creecy, 143, 144, 145, 146, 165, 242.
 Culloden Moor, 332.
 Dettingen, 331.
 Dunbar, 279.
 Edgehill, 272.
 Evesham, 107.
 Falkirk, 118, 119, 135, 332.
 Flodden Field, 200.
 Fontenoy, 331.
 Hastings, 48, 49.
 La Hogue, 300.
 Inkerman, 300.
 Jutland, 423.
 Killiecrankie, 308.
 Lewes, 106.
 Lincoln, 101.
 Malplaquet, 313.
 The Marne, 421, 423.
 Marston Moor, 272.
 Minden, 340.
 Naseby, 276.
 Neville's Cross, 145.
 Newbury, 272.
 The Nile, 356.
 Oudenarde, 313.
 Palay, 171.
 Phillpauagh, 274.
 Pinkle, 214, 332.
 Plassey, 341.
 Poitiers, 145.
 Prestonpans, 332.
 Ramillies, 313.
 St. Albans, 174.
 St. Vincent, 356.
 Sedge-moor, 299.
 Sheriffmuir, 325.
 Shrewsbury, 162.

- Battles (*continued*)—
 Sluys, 143.
 The Spurs, 200.
 Stamford Bridge, 47.
 Talavera, 365.
 Tewkesbury, 180.
 Towton, 176, 177.
 Trafalgar, 361-363.
 Vinegar Hill, 359.
 Vittoria, 366.
 Wakefield, 176.
 Waterloo, 367.
 Worcester, 279.
 Ravenna, 313.
 Bayeux Tapestry, the, 46, 49, 65, 130.
 Beaconsfield, Benjamin Disraeli, earl of, 398, 399, 402. *See also* Disraeli.
 Bear and ragged staff, the, 179.
 Beauchamp, Richard, earl of Warwick. *See* Warwick.
 Beaufort, House of, 183.
 — Margaret, 183.
 Becket, Thomas, archbishop of Canterbury, 127, 130.
 Bedford Gaol, 289.
 — John, duke of, 168, 170, 172.
 — earl of, 227.
 Belgium, 140, 318, 420, 421, 429. *See also* The Netherlands, Holland, and Dutch.
 Benedictines, 131.
 Benevolences, 180, 182, 183, 194.
 Bengal, 337.
 — conquest of, 341.
 Berengaria of Navarre, wife of Richard I., 85.
 Berkeley, 137.
 Berlin, Conference of, 398.
 Berwick-on-Tweed, 116.
 Bethlehem, 88.
 Bible, the, translation of, 210.
 Bicycle, the, 433.
 Bill, Exclusion, 295, 296, 298.
 — Reform, 358, 376, 377, 380, 382, 386, 392, 401, 408; the Great Reform, 376, 377; the Second Reform, 392; the Third Reform, 401; the Fourth, 431-432.
 — of Rights, 303.
 — Root and Branch, 270.
 Birmingham, 375, 402, 412.
 Bishops, foreigners and English, 103, 104.
 Bishops in English Church, 270, 288.
 — in Scottish Church, 267, 288.
 — in Witenagemot, 54.
 — Trial of the Seven, 301.
 Bishops' Wars, the, 268. *See* Wars.
 Black Death, the, 146, 147.
 — Sea, the, 389, 390.
 Blake, Admiral, 283.
 Bleuheim, battle of, 313, 314. *See* Battle.
 — House, 313.
 Bloemfontein, 403.
 Boards, School, 395.
 Boers, the, 404-406, 413.
 Boer War, the, 404, 405, 409.
 Bohemia, Anne of. *See* Anne.
 Bolun, Mary, first wife of Henry IV., 158.
 Boleyn, Anne, second wife of Henry VIII., 190, 202, 203, 206, 211, 224, 228.
 Bolingbroke, Henry Saint John, Lord, 313, 318, 323.
 Bolsheviks, the, 422.
 Bombay, 290.
 Bonaparte, Napoleon, 357, 358. *See* Napoleon I.
 Bonar Law, A., 425.
 Book of Common Prayer, English, 216.
 Bordenaux, 140, 145, 146, 150.
 Boroughs, the, 106, 375, 377, 378, 392, 393, 401.
 — Parliamentary representation of the, 106.
 Boston, Massachusetts, 253, 345.
 Bosworth, battle of, 183. *See* Battle.
 Botha, Louis, 407, 409.
 Bothwell, the earl of, 230, 231.
 Boulogne, Stephen, count of. *See* Stephen.
 Boyne, battle of the, 307. *See* Battle.
 Bradford, church at, 45.
 Braganza, Catharine of. *See* Catharine.
 Bretigny, treaty of, 146.
 Brice. *See* Saint Brice.
 Brick, use of, 155.
 Bridgwater, 299.
 Bright, John, 384.
 Bristol, 299, 319.
 Brittany, 74, 84.
 — Arthur of. *See* Arthur.
 Brixham, 301.
 Bruce, David, king of Scots, son of King Robert, 139, 140, 145.
 — Robert, grandfather of Robert, king of Scots, 116.
 — Robert, king of Scots, 119, 134, 136, 138, 139.
 Bruges, 140.
 Brunswick, Caroline of, 368. *See* Caroline.
 Brussels, 367.
 Bubble, South Sea, 326.
 Buckingham, duke of, in Edward's v.'s reign, 181, 183.
 — duke of, George Villiers, 257, 258, 260, 262, 264, 267.
 Buckinghamshire, 265.
 Budget, the, Lords reject, 413.
 — Lords forced to accept, 414.
 Building. *See* Architecture.
 Bulgarin, 398, 423, 428.
 Bunker's Hill, battle of, 347. *See* Battle.
 Bunyan, John, 289.
 Burgh, Hubert de, Justiciar, 101, 102.
 Burgh-on-Sands, 119.
 Burghley, William Cecil, Lord, 226, 244, 256.
 Burgoyne, General, 348.
 Burgundy, John, Duke of, 167.
 — Philip, Duke of, 167, 163.
 — House of, 172.
 Burke, Edmund, 358.
 Butlers, the, 242. *See* Ormond.
 Butteresses, flying, 102.
 'By' (village), 29.
 Byng, Admiral, 339.
 Byron, Lord, 371.
 CABAL, the, 202, 293.
 Cabinet, Government, 305, 324, 329.
 Cade, Jack, 173.
 Cadiz, 238.

- Caen, 63.
 Caesar, Caius Julius, 5-8.
 Calais, 145, 146, 165, 166, 172, 200, 223, 228, 241.
 — Treaty of, 146, 147.
 Calcutta, 337.
 Caledonia, 9.
 Caledonians, the, 9, 12. *See also* Picts.
 Calvin, John, 227.
 Cambridge, 132, 300, 322.
 Campbell-Bannerman, Sir H., 407, 412, 413.
 Campeggio, Cardinal, 203.
 Canada, 337, 341, 344, 345, 403, 404, 406, 412, 425, 434.
 Canals, 353, 372.
 Canning, George, 369, 370, 371.
 Canningites, the, 369, 370.
 Cannon, 186.
 Canterbury, 21, 22, 37, 44, 62, 80, 81, 93, 146, 194, 301.
 — archbishop of. *See* Augustine, Theodore of Tarsus, Dunstan, Lanfranc, Anselm, Becket, Langton, Morton, Crammer, Laud, Sancroft.
Canterbury Tales, the, 146.
 Cape of Good Hope, the, 238, 309, 404.
 Cape Colony, 404, 409.
 Cardiff Castle, 69.
 Cardinal of the Roman Church, 94, 104, 198.
 Carlisle, 9, 119.
 Carnarvon, 113, 126. *See* Castle.
 Carolina, 299.
 Caroline of Anspach, wife of George II., 328.
 — of Brunswick, wife of George IV., 368.
 Carpets, 246.
 Carr, Robert, 256.
 Carta, Magna, 103, 121.
 Carving, 38.
 Castile, Eleanor of. *See* Eleanor.
 — Isabella of. *See* Isabella.
 Castlerough, Lord, 369, 370.
 Castle, Berkeley, 137.
 — Cardiff, 69.
 — Carnarvon, 113, 126.
 — Chalus, 90.
 — Conway, 113, 126.
 — Conisborough, 125.
 — Fotheringhay, 233.
 — Lochleven, 231.
 — Pontefract, 157.
 — Rochester, 57.
 — Stirling, 134.
 — Tattershall, 185.
 — the Tower of London, 57, 152, 176, 180, 181, 192, 206, 259.
 Castles, 57, 61, 69, 75, 82, 90, 113, 125, 126, 131, 137, 152, 157, 176, 180, 181, 184, 185, 192, 206, 231, 233, 259.
 — Norman, in Wales, 82.
 — in twelfth and thirteenth centuries, 125.
 — concentric, Edward I.'s, 125, 126.
 — give place to mansions, 184.
 Catharine of Aragon, first wife of Henry VIII., 191, 195, 202, 205, 217, 218, 228.
 — of Braganza, wife of Charles II., 286, 289, 290, 294.
 — of France, wife of Henry V., 163, 167.
 — Howard. *See* Howard.
 Catharine Parr. *See* Parr.
 Cathedral, the Norman, 62, 63.
 — Canterbury, 80, 93, 127-129.
 — Gloucester, 137.
 — St. Paul's, 201, 202.
 — Winchester, 68.
 Catholic Association, the, 371.
 — Emancipation, 360, 369, 371, 381, 384.
 Catholics, the. *See* Roman Catholics.
 Cavaliers, the, 271, 288.
 Cavalry, 136, 144.
 Cave Men, 1, 2.
 Cavendish, Lord Frederick, 401.
 Caxton, William, 187.
 Cecil Robert, earl of Salisbury. *See* Salisbury.
 — William, Lord Burghley. *See* Burghley.
 Celle, Sophia Dorothea of. *See* Sophia.
 Celts, 4, 5, 9, 12, 83, 114, 325.
 Ceorl, the. *See* Freeman.
 Chain-mail, 130, 186.
 Chalgrove Field, battle of, 272. *See* Battle.
 Chalmers, Dr., 386.
 Chalus, Castle of, 90. *See* Castle.
 Chamberlain, Joseph, 402, 407, 411, 412, 414.
 Chancellor More, 205.
 — Wolsey, 198.
 Channel; the Bristol, 17.
 — the English, 143, 241.
 Chapels, 280.
 Charles Prince of Wales, 257, 259, 260; afterwards King Charles I., 261-277, 282-284, 289.
 — Prince of Wales, afterwards King Charles II., 278, 279, 286-297, 299, 308, 371.
 — Edward, the Young Pretender, 331-334.
 — VI., king of France, 155, 164, 174.
 — the Dauphin, 167, 170; afterwards Charles VII., king of France, 170-172.
 — archduke of Austria, 200; afterwards Emperor Charles V., 200-202, 220.
 — 313; afterwards Emperor Charles VI., 330.
 Chapter, cathedral, elective power of the, 93.
 Charlotte of Mecklenburg, wife of George III., 342.
 Charter, the Great. *See* Magna Charta.
 — the People's, 382.
 Charters, confirmation of the, 121.
 Chartism. *See* Chartists.
 Chartists, the, 382, 388.
 Chatham, William Pitt, Lord, 344, 345, 347, 348, 350, 351. *See also* Pitt.
 — William, the Elder.
 Chaucer, Geoffrey, 146.
 Cheshire, Palatine county of, 213.
 Chester, 29, 37, 112.
 Chimneys, 51, 245.
 China, 400.
 Chippenharn, treaty of, 28. *See also* Wedmore, treaty of.
 Chocolate, 319.
 Christ Church, Canterbury. *See* Cathedral.

- Christianity, beginnings of, 8.
 — in Britain, 8, 10, 19-22.
 Christianity accepted by the Danes, 39.
 — See also Church.
 Church, the, 10, 22, 23, 62, 63, 79, 93-96, 120, 130, 131, 153, 155, 160, 184, 205, 209, 264, 266, 267, 270, 282, 283, 285, 289, 303, 304, 308, 318, 336, 385, 393, 394.
 — the British, 10.
 — the Welsh, 10, 417.
 — the Irish, 14, 393, 394.
 — the English, 20-23.
 — William I. and the, 62, 63.
 — the, and John, 93.
 — the, and Edward I., 120.
 — the, and Henry IV., 160.
 — the English in the fifteenth century, 184.
 — the, in Henry VIII.'s time, 205.
 — the, and Mary Tudor, 218-222.
 — the, and Elizabeth, 226-228.
 — the, and James I., 252, 255, 256.
 — new party of Arminians arises in the, 264.
 — High, 266.
 — Low, 266.
 — the, and Charles I., 270.
 — Cromwell's settlement of, 282, 283.
 — Restoration settlement of the, 288, 289.
 — the Revolution and the, 303, 304.
 — in the eighteenth century, the, 336.
 — evangelical revival in the, 385.
 — Scottish, the, 267, 308, 318.
 — Irish, disestablishment of the, 393, 394.
 — of St. Stephen, Caen, 63.
 Churches, architectural styles of. See Architecture.
 — English, destroyed by Danes, restored by Alfred, 33.
 — Henry VIII. and the, 209.
 Churchtown, 31.
 Churl, the. See Freeman.
 Cities, Parliamentary representation of the, 106.
 Civil War, the Great, 287, 288, 318. See also War.
 Clans, Irish, 83, 242.
 — Scottish, 325.
 Clarence, George, duke of, 179, 180.
 — Lionel, duke of, 158, 174.
 Clarendon, Assize of. See Assize.
 — Constitutions of. See Constitutions.
 — Edward Hyde, earl of, 270, 291, 292, 294. See also Hyde, Edward.
 Claudius, Roman emperor, 8.
 Claverhouse, James Graham of, 308. See Dundee, Viscount.
 Clemenceau, G., prime minister of France, 430.
 Clement VII., Pope, 202, 203, 204, 205, 206.
 Clergy, English, and John, 94-96.
 — English, papal taxation of, 103.
 — privileges of, 132.
 Cleves, Anne of. See Anne.
 Clive, Robert, 341, 390.
 Clyde, the river, 17, 114.
 — Firth of, 8.
 Cnut, King, 39-41, 42, 43, 45, 54, 61.
 Coaches, 246, 247.
 Coal, 351.
 Coalition of Fox and North, the, 350, 351.
 — ministry (1852), 388-390, (1916), 426-432.
 Cobden, Richard, 334.
 Coburg, Prince Albert of. See Albert.
 Coffee, 319.
 Coffee-houses, 319.
 Collieries, 372.
 Colonial Preference, 412.
 Colonies, 236, 238, 239, 252, 253, 290, 316, 326, 344, 345, 347, 348, 363, 364, 377, 378, 403, 407, 434.
 — English in America, 238, 252, 253, 326, 344, 345, 347, 348.
 — won from France and Spain, 316.
 — and Scottish in Ireland, 252.
 — Charles II. and, 290.
 — abolition of Negro slavery in, 362, 363, 377.
 — in West Indies, 363, 364.
 — growth of, under Victoria, 403-406.
 — Spanish, in America, 236, 238, 239, 316, 326.
 — French, 316.
 — German, 418, 423.
 Columbus, Christopher, 187, 235.
 Commerce, 290, 334. See also Trade.
 Commissions in army, 394.
 Common lands, 123, 210.
 — Prayer. See Prayer-book.
 Commons, House of, the first, 106, 107.
 — the, 54, 106, 107, 264, 268-270, 281, 305-307, 353, 376, 377, 393, 412, 413, 414.
 — to be the only House of Parliament, 281.
 — and William III., 305-307.
 — impeaches Hastings, 353.
 — reform of the, 376, 377. See Reform, Parliamentary.
 — Gladstone and the, 393.
 — constitution of the, 121.
 — and impeachment, 149.
 Commonwealth, the, 271-285, 290.
 — the, set up in Ireland, 279.
 — of Australia, the, 404.
 Communion, the Holy, made a test of office, 294.
 Company, the South Sea, 326.
 — East India, 391.
 Conference of Berlin, 398.
 Confirmation of the Charters of 1297, 121.
 Conisborough, 125. See Castle.
 Connaught, 279.
 Conqueror, William the. See William I.
 Conquest, the Norman, 48, 49, 77, 82, 87, 96, 102, 114, 122, 124, 130, 151.
 Conscription, 426, 432.
 Conservative, name of, 382.
 Conservatives, the, 392, 396, 412-414, 416, 425.
 — Free Traders, 412.
 — the, and Home Rule, 401.
 Constantinople, 398, 420.
 Constitution, the English, Edward I. the founder of, 120.
 — the, and Cromwell, 281, 282.
 Constitutionalism, 160.
 Constitutions of Clarendon, 80.
 Conway, 113, 126. See also Castle.

- Corn laws, the, 382, 384.
 — repeal of the, 386, 388.
 Cornwall, Warbeck lands in, 192.
 Council, the barons', 98.
 Councils, town, 376, 377.
 Counties, the. *See* Shires.
 Counties, Welsh, 112.
 Country life, 51.
 County franchise, the, 392, 393. *See also*
 Reform, Parliamentary.
 Courts, county. *See* Shire-moot.
 — of High commission, 266, 268.
 —, the king's, 116, 117, 124.
 — of Star Chamber, 195, 266, 267, 268.
 —, manorial, 123.
 —, the papal, 94, 196.
 Courts, church, 82.
 Covenant, the Scottish National, 267, 272.
 — the Solemn League and, 272.
 Cranmer, 210, 211, 215, 221.
 Crecy, battle of, 143-146. *See* Battle.
 Crime, 52.
 Crimea, the, 390.
 Crimean war, the, 389-391, 396.
 Cromwell, Oliver, 272, 274-284, 287, 288,
 307, 357.
 — Richard, 284.
 — Thomas, minister of Henry VI., 208,
 210, 211, 274.
 Crossbows, 144.
 Crusade, the First (1095), 87.
 — the Second, 88.
 — the Third, 88.
 Edward I. goes on, 108.
 Crusaders, the, 87, 89.
 Culloden Moor, battle of, 332. *See* Battle.
 Cumberland, 16, 17.
 — Charles Edward in, 332.
 — the duke of, 331, 332, 334.
 Czar of Russia, the, 361. *See* Tsar.
- DAMASCUS, 428.
 Danby, earl of, 293, 294.
 Danegeld, the, 39.
 Dane law, the, 29, 31, 35, 37, 43, 55.
 Danes, the, 27-32, 37-39, 42, 43, 57, 129,
 407, 430.
 Danzig, 430.
 Darnley, Henry, Lord, 230, 231.
 Darwin, Charles, 434.
 Debt, the National, 309.
 Declaration of Independence, the Ameri-
 can, 347, 348.
 — of Indulgence of 1688-301.
 — of Rights, 302, 303.
 Dee, the river, 26, 36.
 Defender of the Faith, Henry VIII. made,
 204.
 Demesne, the, 123.
 Democracy, 307.
 Denmark, Anne of. *See* Anne.
 — George of. *See* George.
 —, 27, 38, 40, 430.
 Derby, Charles Edward's march to, 332
 — Lord, 388, 392, 393.
 Derbyshire, Charles Edward in, 332.
 Desmond, the earls of, 242.
 Despensers, the, 136, 137.
 Despotism, the Norman, 99, 109.
 — the Tudor, 195.
 — Charles I.'s, 269, 270.
- Dettingen, battle of, 331.
 Devonshire, 216, 237, 301.
 — duke of, Lord Hartington, 401, 402.
 Diamonds in South Africa, 404.
 Disendowment of Irish Church, 393, 394.
 Disestablishment of the Irish Church,
 393, 394; of the Welsh Church, 417.
 Dispensation, papal, 193.
 Dispensing power, the royal, 300.
 Disraeli, Benjamin, 385, 388, 392, 393,
 396, 398, 399, 402. *See also* Beacons-
 field, the earl of.
 Disruption, the Scottish, 386.
 Dissenters, the Protestant, 227, 289, 301,
 336, 371. *See also* Nonconformists.
 — and James II., 301.
 — the, in the eighteenth century, 336.
Domesday Book, the, 63.
 Domestic system of manufacture, the,
 354.
 Dominic, St., 131.
 Dominicans, the, 131.
 Dominion of Canada, the, 403.
 Dominions, the, 432, 433. *See also*
 Colonies.
 Domrémi, 170.
 Doncaster, 125.
 Donegal, 242.
 Dover, submission of John to Pope at, 96.
 — treaty of, 292, 293. *See* Treaty.
 Drake, Sir Francis, 237-239, 241.
 Dress, 124, 129, 151, 152, 319-321.
 — in the Middle Ages, 129.
 — in Stewart period, 319, 320.
 — during Restoration, 320, 321.
 Drinking, 52.
 Drogheda, capture of, 279.
 Druids, the, 5.
 Dual Alliance of France and Russia, the,
 419.
 Dublin, 191, 242, 359, 394, 432.
 — Parliament at, 394.
 — rebellion at, 432.
 Dudley, John, earl of Warwick. *See*
 Warwick and Northumberland.
 — Lord Guildford, 217.
 — Robert, earl of Leicester. *See*
 Leicester.
 Dues, Feudal, 98.
 Dunbar, battle of, 279. *See* Battle.
 Dundee, Viscount, James Graham, 308.
 See also Graham, James.
 Duns or camps, 5.
 Dunstan, archbishop of Canterbury, 36-
 38, 41, 93.
 Durham, 145.
 Dutch, the, 280, 283, 290, 291, 293, 294,
 309, 310, 319, 404-406. *See* Holland.
 — the, at war with the Rump, 280.
 — and Cromwell, 283.
 — jealousy between English and, 290,
 291.
 — and England, war between, 293, 294.
 — army, 301.
 Dutch and William III. against Louis XIV.,
 309.
 — trade, 319.
 — in South Africa, 404-406.
 Dyke, Offa's, 26, 31.
- EARL, the title of, 41, 44, 54, 104.
 Earldom of Chester. *See* Chester.
 Earldoms, the Great, 41.

- Earthworks of castles, 59.
 East, the, 109, 419-420, 422-423, 428, 432-433.
 — English trade with the Far, 254.
 — India Company, the, 253, 254, 391.
 — German ambitions in the, 419-420, 428.
 Edgar, the Peaceful, King, 36-38, 41, 69, 82.
 Edgar Ætheling, 40, 69.
 Edgell, battle of, 272. *See* Battle.
 Edinburgh, 214, 325, 331.
 Edmund, King, 36.
 Edmund, Ironside, 39, 40, 42, 69.
 Edred, King, 36.
 Education, 305, 408, 431, 435.
 — Act, Elementary, of 1870. .395.
 — of 1918. .431.
 Edward the Confessor, King of, 42-46, 56, 61-63, 73.
 Edward the Elder, King, 32, 35.
 — the Martyr, King, 38.
 — the Lord, afterwards Edward I., 106-109.
 — I., King, 106-109, 110-121, 132, 133, 183, 184, 230, 282.
 — II., 113, 133-137, 155, 157.
 — III., 136-149, 150, 153, 164, 174, 176, 178, 185, 193, 202.
 — IV., 176-184, 180, 194.
 — V., 180, 181.
 — VI., 214-218, 221, 226, 227, 265.
 — VII., 32, 244-405-414, 419, 433-486.
 — the Black Prince, 143-146, 149, 150, 186.
 — duke of Kent, 374. *See* Kent.
 Edwin, king of Northumbria, 21, 25.
 — earl of Mercia, 45-48, 56, 61.
 Edwy, King, 36, 37.
 Ellingham. *See* Howard, Lord.
 Egbert, king of the West Saxons, 27, 69.
 Egypt, 88, 399, 401, 403, 411, 419, 422, 427.
 Eighteenth century, characteristics of the, 334, 335, 353, 354.
 Elba, 367.
 Elbe, the river, 14.
 Elders or presbyters, 229.
 Eleanor of Aquitaine, wife of Henry II., 73, 74, 92, 140, 146, 172.
 — of Castile, first wife of Edward I., 110.
 — of Provence, wife of Henry III., 100, 103.
 — sister of Henry III., countess of Leicester, and wife of Simon de Montfort, 103.
 Election of king, 54, 159.
 Elections, ecclesiastical, 93, 94.
 — Parliamentary, 375, 382. *See also* Boroughs, Reform Bills, and Parliament.
 Elector Palatine, title of, 260.
 Electress of Hanover, 318.
 Elementary Education Act of 1870. .395.
See Education.
 Eliot, Sir John, 264, 265.
 Elizabeth, Queen, 218, 220, 223, 224-249, 250, 253-255, 266, 283, 319.
 — Woodville, wife of Edward IV., 177, 179, 181.
 — of York, wife of Henry VII., 189, 190.
 — Electress Palatine, daughter of James I., 260, 305.
 Elizabethan Style. *See* Architecture.
 Ely, the Isle of, 57.
 Emancipation, Catholic, 360, 369, 371, 381, 384.
 Emigration to New Zealand and Virginia, 252, 253; to North America, 290; to Canada and Australia, 403; to South Africa, 404.
 Emma, mother of Edward the Confessor, 43.
 Emperor of Britain, title of, 36.
 — Henry VI. *See* Henry VI.
 — of the French, Napoleon made, 358.
 Empire, the Angevin, 92.
 — Indian, 341, 353.
 — the Roman, 6-8.
 England, meaning of, 13.
 — consolidated into one State, 24-27.
 English, the, 13-15, 17, 19, 61, 78. *See also* Anglo-Saxon.
 Episcopacy in Scotland, 308.
 Essex, kingdom of, 16, 25.
 — Augustine visits, 21.
 Essex, the earl of, Elizabeth's favourite, 244.
 — the Parliamentary general, son of the above, 272, 274.
 Ethelbert, king of Kent, 19, 20, 25.
 Ethelred the Unready, King, 38, 39, 42.
 Ethelwulf, king of the West Saxons, 27, 28.
 Evangelical revival, the, 385.
 Evesham, battle of, 107. *See* Battle.
 Exchequer, Gladstone, Chancellor of the, 392.
 Exclusion Bill, the, 295, 296, 298.
 Excommunication of John, 95, 96.
 FACTORY SYSTEM, the, 354.
 Fairfax, Sir Thomas, 274.
 Falkirk, battles of, 118, 332. *See* Battle.
 Falkland, Lord, 270, 272, 291.
 Famine in Ireland, 384.
 Farmers, 377.
 — Irish, 384.
 Farming, 140, 319, 353.
 Favourites, Henry III.'s foreign, 102, 103, 104.
 Fawkes, Guy, 255, 256.
 Fenians, the, 393.
 Ferdinand, King of Aragon, 192, 193, 200.
 Feudalism, 60, 150, 151.
 — in Ireland, 83.
 Field of Cloth of Gold, the, 200, 201.
 Fief, 60.
 Fifteen, the Council of, 106.
 Fire, the Great, of London, 291.
 Firearms, 186.
 First Reform Act, the, 377. *See* Bill, the Reform.
 Fisher, John, bishop of Rochester, 206, 207.
 Fitzgerald, House of, 212, 242, 244. *See* Kildare and Desmond.
 Five Members, arrest of the, 270, 271.
 Flanders, 140, 149, 427, 429.
 — Matilda of, queen of William I., 63.
 Fleet, the British, 360.
 — Dutch, 290.
 — Spanish, 238-242.
 Flemings. *See* Flanders.
 Flintshire, 113.

- Foch, Marshal, 427, 428, 429.
 Fontenoy, battle of, 331. *See* Battle.
 Food, 124, 151, 152, 245, 319, 386.
 — in Elizabeth's time, 245.
 — in Stewart period, 319.
 — improvement in, 386.
 Foreigners, power of, in England, 63.
 — appointed to English bishoprics, 103, 104.
 — banished from England, 104.
 Forest, the new, 67.
 — laws, 98.
 Forgery, 370.
 Forks, 246.
 Forth, the Firth of, 8, 16, 17, 114, 134.
 Fotheringhay, 233. *See* Castle.
 Fountains Abbey, 209.
 Fox, Charles James, 350, 358, 362.
 France, 6, 7, 43, 74, 82, 89, 93, 96, 103, 116, 136, 140-146, 149, 150, 164-167, 169-172, 174, 176, 180, 192, 193, 199-202, 214, 215, 220, 222, 228, 232, 263, 280, 283, 289, 290, 292-294, 301, 309, 312, 313, 315, 316, 323, 330, 331, 336-338, 344, 345, 350, 354-356, 360-362, 366, 367, 395, 399, 406, 411, 413, 418-430.
 — kings of. *See* under the name of each king.
 — Catharine of. *See* Catharine.
 — Henrietta Maria of. *See* Henrietta Maria.
 — Isabella of, queen of Richard II. *See* Isabella.
 — Margaret of. *See* Margaret.
 — the Normans in, 43.
 — Henry II.'s power in, 74, 82.
 — Edward III. and war with, 140-146, 148.
 — and Richard II., 150.
 — Henry V. renews Edward III.'s claim to, 164.
 — Hundred Years' War with, 164-167.
 — Henry VI. and, 169-172.
 — end of Hundred Years' War with, 172.
 — under Charles VI., 174.
 — Margaret of Anjou sent back to, 180.
 — and Perkin Warbeck, 192.
 — and Scotland, 193.
 — under Louis XII., 199.
 — and Henry VIII. at war, 199, 200.
 — Mary Queen of Scots and, 214, 215.
 — and Queen Mary Tudor, 220, 222.
 — Elizabeth ends war with, 228.
 — Protestants in, 232.
 — Charles I. at war with, 263.
 — and Charles II., 280, 294.
 — and Cromwell, 283.
 — and England under Charles II., 289, 290.
 — secret league between Charles II. and, 292, 293.
 — James II. flees to, 301.
 — and William III., 309.
 — and Queen Anne, 312.
 — power of, 313.
 — Anne makes peace with, 315.
 — colonies of, 316.
 — Bolingbroke flees to, 323.
 — Walpole friendly with, 330.
 — and Young Pretender, 331.
 France and Austrian Succession, 331.
 — and Irish Catholics, 331.
 — in India, power of, 336, 338.
 — in North America, power of, 337.
 — George III. makes peace with, 344.
 — power of, in Canada, 344, 345, 406.
 — power of, in India, 350.
 — Revolution in, 354, 355.
 — Austria, Prussia, and England at war with, 356.
 — at war with England, 360-362.
 — invaded by Wellington, 366.
 — Napoleon returns from Elba to, 367.
 — allied with England during Crimean war, 389-391.
 — at war with Germany, 395.
 — joins England in interfering in Egypt, 399.
 — withdraws from co-operation with England in Egypt, 399.
 — recognises British occupation of Egypt, 411.
 — Dual Alliance with Russia, 419.
 — England settles her disputes with, 419.
 — England joins, in war against Germany, 401.
 Franchise, the, 392, 393. *See* Bill, the Reform.
 Francis I., king of France, 200-202.
 — St., 131.
 Franciscans, the, 131.
 Franco-German war, the, 395.
 Frederick, Prince of Wales, son of George II., 329, 341.
 — the Great, king of Prussia, 331, 339, 340, 344.
 Free Church of Scotland, the, 386.
 Freeholders, 376.
 Freeman, the, 52, 53.
 — Mrs., 311, 315.
 Free Trade, 392, 403, 411, 412.
 French, General, Lord, 421.
 Friars, Mendicant, 131.
 — Franciscan, 131.
 — Dominican, 131.
 Fur, use of, 129.
 Fyrd, the, 78. *See also* Army.
 GALLIC, 322, 325. *See* Language.
 Garter Order of the, 149.
 Gascony, 74, 85, 92, 96, 116, 120, 133, 140, 145, 146, 170, 172, 173. *See also* Guienne and Aquitaine.
 Gauls, the, 6-8.
 Gaunt, John of, 149, 150, 152, 153, 156, 158, 183. *See* Lancaster.
 Gaveston, Piers, 133-136.
 General Assembly, the Scottish, 267.
 Geneva, 227.
 — the church of, 229.
 Geoffrey, count of Anjou, father of Henry II., 70, 73, 74.
 — son of Henry II., and duke of Brittany, 74, 84, 91.
 George, Elector of Hanover, 318; afterwards George I., 322-327.
 — II., 327-341.
 — III., 142, 341, 367, 371, 403.
 — Prince of Wales, 367, afterwards George IV., 368-373.
 — V., 414, 435.

- George, duke of Clarence. *See* Clarence.
 — of Denmark, husband of Queen Anne, 311.
 — D. Lloyd, 407, 412, 413, 426, 427, 430, 431, 432.
 Georgia, 336.
 Germany, 12-14, 10, 27, 89, 124, 187, 204, 235, 260, 322, 367, 393, 413, 418-430, 431, 432.
 — as a trading nation, 124, 235, 418.
 — and printing, 187.
 — Luther and, 201.
 — and England, 322, 418-430.
 — at war with France, 393, 420.
 — new constitution of, 393.
 — the War with, 1914-1918, 418-430.
 Ghent, 140, 149.
 Gibraltar, 314, 316, 350.
 Gladstone, William Ewart, 385, 392, 393-396, 398, 399, 401-403, 411.
 Glastonbury, abbey of, 36.
 Glencoe, the massacre of, 303.
 — Macdonald, of, 308.
 Glendower, Owen, 162, 163.
 Gloucester, 137, 272.
 — Richard, duke of, afterwards Richard III., 180, 181. *See* Richard III.
 — Thomas, duke of, 156.
 Gloucestershire, 137.
 Godwin, earl of the West Saxons, 41, 45.
 Gold, 403.
 — mines, 259.
 — in Australia, 403.
 — in South Africa, 401.
 Good Hope, Cape of, 399.
 Gordon, Charles, 400, 403.
 Gothic. *See* Architecture, 102.
 — sculpture on tomb of Edward II., 137.
 Government, cabinet, 303, 307.
 — cabinet and party, 324.
 Government party, 303-307.
 Graham, James, of Claverhouse, 308.
See also Dundee, Viscount.
 Grand Alliance, the, 313.
 — Remonstrance, the, 270.
 Grattan, Henry, 359, 394.
 Grazing, 319.
 Great Britain, James I., first king of, 252.
Great Commoner, the, 335. *See* Pitt, William, the Elder.
Great Harry, the (ship), 209, 210, 241.
 — Rebellion, the, 271-276, 283.
 Great Britain, expansion into, 253.
 Greece, 370, 371, 423.
 Gregory I., Pope, 22.
 Grey, Lady Jane, 217, 220.
 — Lord, 376.
 Guenne, 140. *See also* Gascony.
 Gunpowder, 185.
 — Plot, the, 255, 256.
 Guthrum, leader of the Danes, 28, 29, 32, 39, 43.
 Haig, Marshal Sir Douglas, 426, 427.
 HAINAULT, Philippa of. *See* Philippa.
 Hampden, John, 205, 208, 276.
 Hampshire, 16.
 — the New Forest in, 67.
 Hanover, 327; the French overrun, 340.
 — House of, 325, 330, 332, 343.
 Hanover, Sophia, Electress of, 305. *See* Sophia.
 Harleour, taken by Henry V., 163.
 Harley, Robert, earl of Oxford, 315, 318.
 Harold Harefoot, King, 41.
 — earl of the West Saxons, 41, 45.
 — king of England, 46-49, 54, 56.
 — Hardrada, king of Norway, 46, 47.
 Harthacnut, King, 41, 42.
 Hartington, Lord, 401. *See* Devonshire.
 Hastings, battle of, 48, 49, 57. *See* Battle.
 — Warren, 350, 353.
 Hatfield House, 214, 218.
 Hauberk, the, 129, 130.
 Hawkins, Sir John, 236, 237, 241.
 Height of Abraham, the, 311.
 Helmet, the, 130.
 Hengist, 16-19.
 Henrietta Maria of France, wife of Charles I., 261, 263.
 Henry I., 59, 61, 68-70, 73-79, 95.
 — II., 71, 73-86, 95, 101, 115, 126, 132, 140, 212.
 — III., 45, 100-109, 126, 128, 131, 132, 181.
 — IV., 156-163, 169, 179, 220.
 — V., 163-167, 202.
 — VI., 167-177, 179, 180, 182, 185.
 — VII., 183-195, 199, 231, 235, 242, 253.
 — VIII., 190, 193, 196-215, 218-221, 224-226, 228, 235, 243, 269.
 — of Anjou, son of Matilda, 71, 83, 81.
See also Henry II.
 — VI., Emperor, 89.
 Henry Tudor. *See* Richmond, and Henry VII.
 Heraldry, 130.
 Hereford, duke of, 156. *See* Henry IV.
 Heresy, Mary's persecution of, 220.
 Hereward, 57.
 Hertfordshire, 244.
 High Church party, the, 266, 289, 310, 336.
 — Commission Court. *See* Court.
 — Court of Justice, 277.
 Highlanders, the, 4, 114, 115, 325, 332.
 Highlands, the, 17, 134, 274, 308, 325, 331, 334.
 Highwaymen, 321, 372.
 Hindenburg, General, 429.
 Hindenburg line, the, 429.
 Hougue, La, battle of, 309. *See* Battle.
 Holland, 234, 235, 280, 283, 290, 291, 293, 294, 296, 313, 319, 348-350.
 — at war with the Rump, 280.
 — and Cromwell, 283.
 — joins Grand Alliance, 313.
 — trade of, passed over to England, 319.
 — at war with England, 350.
 Homage, Scots', to English king, 83.
 Home Rule for Ireland, 394, 396, 401, 402, 414, 417-418, 432-438.
 Hooker, Richard, 247.
 Horsa, 16, 19.
 Hotspur, Henry. *See* Percy.
House, the Other, 282.
 Houses, 51, 124, 125, 184, 245.
 Howard, Catharine, fifth wife of Henry VIII., 196, 212.
 Hubert de Burgh, 101, 102.

- Humber, the, 16, 156.
 Hundred Years' War, the, 140-147, 164-167, 168-172, 309.
 Hundreds, 55.
 Hungarians, 429.
 Hunting, 52.
 Huntingdonshire, 274.
 Hyde, Anne, first wife of James II., 298.
 Hyde, Edward, 270, 291; earl of Clarendon. *See* Clarendon.
 IBERIANS, 3.
 Impeachment, 149.
 — of Bacon, 258.
 — of Strafford and Laud, 268, 269.
 — of Warren Hastings, 353.
 Imprisonment, 98.
 Independence, Declaration of American, 347, 348.
 Independents, the, 227, 253, 270, 277, 282, 289.
 India, 254, 336, 338, 348, 349, 390, 391, 399, 422, 425, 434.
 Indian Mutiny, the, 390.
 Indians, the, Red, 238, 337, 345.
 Indies, West, the, 252, 350, 352, 363, 364, 377, 403.
 Indulgence, Declaration of (1688), 301.
 Industrial Revolution, the, 353, 354.
 Infanta, the, and Charles, Prince of Wales, 259.
 Infantry, 136, 144, 332. *See also* Army.
 Iukerman, battle of, 390. *See also* Battle.
 Innocent III, Pope, 94, 97.
 Instrument of Government, the, 281.
 Insurance Act, the National, 417.
 Interdict, the, 95.
 Invasions, Danish, 38, 39, 57.
 Inventions, 353.
 — in Victorian Age, 406.
 Inverness, 332.
 Invincible Armada, the, 239.
 Iona, Monastery of, 22.
 Ipswich, 198.
 Ireland, 1, 10, 12, 13, 22, 24, 25, 82, 83, 156, 191, 192, 212, 213, 241, 242-244, 252, 267, 269, 278, 279, 281, 288, 300, 307, 308, 358, 360, 371, 381, 382, 384, 388, 393, 394, 396, 401, 402, 417-418, 432-433.
 — Normans in, 83.
 — Henry II. in, 83.
 — Richard II. in, 156.
 — and Henry VIII., 212, 213.
 — under Elizabeth, 212, 244.
 — Conquest of, 212.
 — English and Scottish Colonies in, 252.
 — under Charles I., 267, 269.
 — at war with England, 278, 279.
 — Parliamentary representation of, 281.
 — and James I., 300.
 — the Revolution in, 307, 308.
 — and younger Pitt, 258-360.
 — Catholic Association in, 371.
 — discontent in early nineteenth century in, 381, 382.
 — famine in, 384.
 — repeal agitation in, 388.
 — and Gladstone, 393, 394, 402.
 Ireland and Parnell, 396.
 — and Home Rule, 401, 402, 417-418, 432-433.
 Irish, the. *See* Ireland.
 — native, ill-treatment of the, 288.
 — Land Act, 394.
 Iron, 354.
 Isabella of Angoulême, queen of John, 91, 103.
 — queen of Castile, 102, 103.
 — of France, second wife of Richard II., 136, 137, 141, 150.
 Isthmus of Panama, 238.
 — of Sucz, 399.
 Italian Style of Architecture. *See* Architecture.
 Italians trading, 124, 235. *See* Italy.
 Italy, 5-12, 66, 124, 187, 235, 316, 395, 423-431.
 — influence on England of, 187.
 — in trade, 124, 235.
 — Spanish possession in, 316.
 — united, 395.
 — her Triple Alliance with Germany and Austria, 418-419, 420.
 — joins England and France in war against Germany, 423, 426, 429, 430, 431.
 JACOBINE Style. *See* Architecture.
 Jacobites, the, 310, 324, 325, 331-334.
 Jamaica, 283.
 James I., 250-260, 267, 316, 319.
 — II., as Duke of York, 290, 294, 295; as king, 298-302, 308-310, 319.
 — IV., king of Scots, 103, 104, 200, 214.
 — VI., king of Scots, 231, 234. *See also* James I.
 — the 'old Pretender,' son of James II., 301, 318, 323, 325.
 — duke of Monmouth. *See* Monmouth.
 James, duke of York. *See* James II.
 Jane Grey, Lady. *See* Grey.
 — Seymour. *See* Seymour.
 Japan, at war with Russia, 411.
 Jeffreys, Judge, 299.
 Jellicoe, Admiral, 423.
 Jerusalem, 87, 88, 428; Christian kingdom of, 88; Christians driven out of, 88.
 Jervis, Admiral, 356.
 Jesuits, the, 233.
 Jewellery, old English, 52.
 Jews, Cromwell and the, 282.
 —, Edward I. and the, 124, 125.
 Joan Dare. *See* Joan of Arc.
 — of Arc, 170-172.
 — of Navarre, second wife of Henry IV., 159.
 John Lackland, king of England, 84, 87, 90-99, 100, 103, 133.
 — king of France, 145, 146.
 — king of Scots. *See* Balliol, John.
 — of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, 149, 150, 152, 153, 156, 158, 183. *See also* Lancaster.
 — duke of Bedford. *See* Bedford.
 — duke of Burgundy. *See* Burgundy.
 Joseph Bonaparte, king of Spain, 364, 365.
 Judges, Henry II.'s, 77.
 Justices, Henry II.'s, 77.
 Justiciar, Hubert de Burgh, as, 101.
 Justiciars, King's, 86, 87.

- Jury, origin of the, 77.
Jutes, the, 14, 16.
- KEEP (of a castle), 59.
Kenneth Macalpine, king of Scots, 17.
Kennington Common, 388.
Kent, kingdom of, 16-25; conversion of, 20, 21.
— county, 55, 152, 173.
— Edward, duke of, 374.
— Ethelbert, king of, 19, 20, 25.
Khartum, taking of, 400, 401.
Khedive of Egypt, the, 399, 400.
Kildare, earls of, 242.
Killfrankie, battle of, 308. *See also* Battle.
King, position of the old English, 54.
King-maker, the. *See* Warwick.
Kinross-shire, 231.
Kirkby, Kirby, or Kirkton, 31.
Kitchener, Lord, 407, 409, 425.
Knighthood, order of, 149.
Knights, 80, 122, 130, 145. *See also* Parliament, and Reform, Parliamentary.
— of the shire, 107.
Knox, John, 228, 229.
Kut-el-Amara, fall of, 423, 426.
- LABOUR, forced, 152, 153.
— free, 152, 153.
— party, the, 414.
Lackland, surname of King John, 90.
Lancashire, 324, 332, 374.
Lancaster, Henry of. *See* Henry IV.
— House of, 159, 160, 174, 176, 180, 183, 190, 193, 191.
— possession of, 52, 53.
Land Act, Irish, 304, 401.
Land League, Irish, the, 306.
Landlords, power of the, 376.
Lanfranc, archbishop of Canterbury, 62-66.
Langton, Stephen, archbishop of Canterbury, 94, 96, 97, 101.
Language, the Celtic, 4, 15.
— the Latin, 10, 63, 132; its use in church services discontinued, 218.
— the English, 15, 19, 20, 63, 114, 146, 320; traditions of the Bible in, 210, 211.
— French, 43; it displaces English, 63, 70, 93, 122, 146.
— Gaelic, 115, 325.
— Irish, 114.
— Lowland Scots, 114, 115.
Latimer, Hugh, bishop of Worcester, 217, 222.
Laud, William, archbishop of Canterbury, 265-267, 269.
Law, A. Bonar, 425.
Law, English and Scots, 252.
Law, martial, 264.
— Scots, 318.
— teaching of, 132.
Laws, forest, 98.
League, Anti-Corn Law, 384.
— Irish Land, 396.
— of Nations, the, 430, 431.
Learning, Alfred the Great and, 33.
— Dunstan and, 37, 38.
— in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, 131.
Learning in Victorian Age, 408.
Leeds, 375.
Legates, papal, 101, 103.
Legislation, Edward I.'s, 120.
Leicester, 201.
— Simon de Montfort, earl of. *See* Montfort.
— Robert Dudley, earl of, 231, 235.
Leicestershire, 155, 183.
Levant, the, 389.
Lewes, battle of, 106. *See* Battle.
Liberal Unionists, 402.
Liberals, the, 386, 388, 391-393, 398, 402, 412-414, 416.
Lilies, the badge of France, 142.
Limerick, 307.
Lincoln, the Viscount of, 90.
Lincoln, 125.
— battle of, 101. *See* Battle.
Lincolnshire, 185.
Lion, the, the bridge of England, 142.
'Lion of Righteousness,' the, 69.
Lionel, duke of Clarence. *See* Clarence.
Literature, Elizabethan, 217.
— during the Restoration, 321, 322.
— Victorian, 407, 408.
Liverpool, 372, 385.
Livery, 194.
Llywelyn, Prince of Wales, 111, 112, 117.
Loans, forced, 261.
Lochleven, 231. *See* Castle.
Locomotives, 372.
Loire, the river, 74, 146, 170, 171.
Lollards, the, 154, 160, 161.
London, 29, 51, 70, 110, 124, 123, 115, 152, 173, 176, 180, 191, 203, 271, 272, 284, 291, 301, 319, 325, 332, 336, 345.
Londonderry, siege of, 307.
Long Parliament. *See* Parliament, the Long.
Lord, the feudal, 53, 61.
Lords, House of, the, 51, 104, 107, 121, 149, 255, 260, 278, 282, 295, 296, 306, 307, 376, 413, 414, 415, 417.
— Marcher. *See* Marcher.
Lorraine, 430.
Lothian, 111, 334.
Louis, afterwards Louis VIII., king of France, invited by barons to England, 90, 101.
— XII., king of France, 199, 200.
— XIII., king of France, 263.
— XIV., king of France, 283, 293, 331, 309, 310, 321, 354.
— XVI., 355.
Louisiana, 337.
Low Church, 266, 289, 310.
Lowlands of Scotland, the, 114, 115, 134, 274, 308, 324, 331.
— Jacobite rising in the, 324.
Luther, Martin, 204, 211.
Lutterworth, 155.
Luxury, growth of, 408, 409.
Lyne, 290.
- MACADAM, 372.
Macedonia, war in, 423, 428.
MacAlpine, Kenneth, king of Scots, 17.
Macdonald of Glencoe, 308.
Macdonalds, the, 308.
Madras, 341.
Madrid, 260.
Magellan, Straits of, 238.

- Magna Carta, 97, 98, 101, 104, 107.
 Mahdi, the, 399-400.
 Mail, 186. *See also* Armour.
 Malcolm, king of Scots, 69.
 Malplaquet, battle of, 313. *See* Battle.
 Manchester, 372, 373.
 — Jacobites, 322.
 Manors, 123.
 Manufactures, 140, 353, 354, 377.
 Manuscript books, 187.
 Manx, the, 4.
 Mar earl of, 325.
 March, earls of, 174. *See also* Mortimer.
 — Edward, earl of. *See* York.
 — the, 16. *See* Mercia.
 — March, the, of Wales, 111, 136;
 under Henry VIII., 321.
 Marcher, lords, the, 111, 112.
 Margaret of Anjou, queen of Henry VI.,
 168, 172, 173, 179, 180.
 — of France, second queen of Edward
 I., 110.
 — of Norway, 115.
 — St., queen of Scotland, 60.
 — Tudor, married James IV. of Scot-
 land, 193, 214, 230.
 Maria Theresa, the Empress, 331.
 Marlborough, John Churchill, duke of,
 310-313, 315, 316, 365.
 — Sarah Jennings, duchess of, 311,
 317.
 Marne, the river, 421, 427, 428.
 Marshall, William, earl of Pembroke, 101.
 Marston Moor, battle of, 272. *See*
 Battle.
 Martial law, 261.
 Mary I., Tudor Queen, 217-223, 226.
 — II., Queen, wife of William III., 204,
 301-310.
 — Princess, m. William of Orange, 204.
 See Mary II., queen.
 — Bohun. *See* Bohun.
 — of Modena, second wife James II.,
 298.
 — Queen of Scots, 214, 215, 228, 230,
 231, 233-235, 238, 250.
 Mary of Teck, queen of George V., 415.
 Masham, Mrs., 315.
 Mass, the, 217, 221.
 — Cromwell and the, 283.
 Massachusetts, 253.
 Massacre of St. Brice's Day, 39.
 — of Glencoe, 308.
 Matilda of Flanders, queen of William I.,
 63, 64.
 — queen of Henry I., 69, 73.
 — daughter of Henry I. and mother of
 Henry II., 70, 71, 74.
 Maude, General, 426, 427.
 Mayflower, the (ship), 252.
 Mayor of London, the, 124, 152.
 Mayors, election of, 377.
 Mecklenburg, Charlotte of. *See* Char-
 lotte.
 Medicine, teaching of, 132.
 Mediterranean Sea, the, 314, 339, 399.
 Medway, the river, 290.
 Meiningen, Adelaide of. *See* Adelaide.
 Melbourne, Lord, 377-380, 382.
 — (Australia), 403.
 Mendicant Orders. *See* Friars.
 Mercia, kingdom of, 16, 21, 22, 25, 28, 31.
 — Penda, king of, 21.
 — Christianity in, 22.
 — overlordship of, 25-27.
 — earldom of, 37, 41.
 — Edwin, earl of, 45, 48.
 Mersey, river, 17.
 Mesopotamia, war against Turks in, 423,
 426-427, 428.
 Metal, work in, 38.
 Methodists, the, 336.
 Meuse, the, 170.
 Middle Ages, the, 186, 187.
 Middlesex, county of, 335.
 — kingdom of, 16, 21.
 Midlands, the, 21, 25, 29, 55, 57, 107.
 Milford Haven, 183.
 Milton, John, 321, 322.
 Minden, battle of, 340. *See* Battle.
 Ministry of all the Talents, the, 362, 364.
 Missionaries, Roman Catholic, 232, 233.
 Missions, evangelical, 386.
 Mississippi, river, 337.
 Model, the new, 274.
 Modena, Mary of. *See* Mary.
 Mohammedans, the, 87, 108.
 Monasteries, monks, and monasticism,
 23, 33, 37, 38, 130, 131, 220.
 — founded by William I., 62, 63.
 — the, and Henry VIII., 207-210.
 — and Mary Tudor, 220.
 — Irish, and Henry VIII., 212.
 Money-lenders, Jewish, 124-125.
 Monk, General, 284.
 Monks, 23, 130, 131.
 — Benedictine, 131.
 Monks on cathedral chapters, 93, 94.
 Monmouth, James, duke of, 290.
 Montfort, Simon de, earl of Leicester,
 103, 104, 106-110, 120.
 Montrose, the marquis of, 274, 308.
 Moot, Shire-, 55, 77.
 — Hundred, 55.
 Morear, earl of Mercia, 56, 61.
 More, Sir Thomas, 205-207, 208.
 Morley, Mrs., 311.
 Morocco, 420.
 Mortimer, Roger, earl of March, 36,
 138; Edmund, 158.
 Mortimer, Edmund, earl of March, 158.
 Morton, Cardinal, 194.
 Morton's Fork, 194.
 Motor car, the, 433.
 Mountjoy, Lord, 244.
 Municipal Corporation Reform Act
 (1835), 377.
 Munitions, ministry of, 426.
 Murder, old English punishment for, 52.
 Muskets, 185-186.
 Mutiny, the Indian, 390.
 NABOB of Bengal, the, 337, 341.
 Napoleon I., Bonaparte, emperor of the
 French, 357, 358, 360-362, 364, 383,
 401.
 — England at war with, 360-362.
 — III., emperor of the French, 354,
 390, 395.
 Nasal, the (of a helmet), 130.
 Naseby, battle of, 276. *See* Battle.
 National Assembly, the French, 355.
 National Covenant, the. *See* Covenant.

- National Debt, the, 309.
 National Insurance Act, the, 417.
 National states, 305.
 Nationalists, the Irish, 418, 430, 432, 433.
See also Home Rule for Ireland.
 Navarre, Berengaria of. *See* Berengaria.
 — Joan of. *See* Joan.
 Navy, the English, 235, 236.
 — Alfred the Great's, 32.
 — Elizabeth's, 240-242, 244.
 — the, and Charles I., 265.
 — in the Stewart period, 319.
 — the, in the German War, 423-424.
 Negro slavery, abolition of, 377.
 Nelson, Admiral, 356, 360-362.
 Neolithic or New Stone Age, 3.
 Netherlands, the, 192, 234, 235, 309.
 — Charles V. and the, 200.
 — Flight of Edward IV. to the, 179.
 — Marlborough in the, 313.
 — Napoleon in the, 367.
 — Spanish possessions in the, 316.
 Neville, House of, 178.
 — Anne. *See* Anne.
 — Richard, earl of Warwick. *See* Warwick.
 Neville's Cross, battle of, 145. *See* Battle.
 New Amsterdam, 290.
 — England, 253, 290.
 — Model, the, 274.
 — Plymouth, 353.
 — South Wales, 403.
 — World, discovery of the, 187.
 — York, 290.
 — Zealand, 404, 432.
 Newbury, battle of, 272. *See* Battle.
 Newcastle, 9.
 — Thomas Pelham, duke of, 334-336, 340, 344.
 Newman, John Henry, 386.
 Newton, Sir Isaac, 322.
 Nicholas II., Tsar of Russia, 422.
 Nile, the, 399, 401.
 — battle of the, 356. *See* Battle.
 Nobles, the English, 53-55, 60. *See also* Thegns.
 — Norman, 74.
 — the, and Henry VII., 194.
 Nonconformists, 227, 289, 385, 386. *See also* Puritans and Dissenters.
 Norfolk, 16, 216.
 Normandy, 60, 65, 66, 74, 97, 140, 143, 165, 166, 172, 173.
 — conquered by Henry II., 69.
 — lost by John, 92, 93.
 — invaded by Edward III., 143.
 — Henry V. in, 165, 166.
 — English driven out of, 172, 173.
 — House of, 73.
 Normans, the, 70, 78, 93, 114, 122, 129, 212.
 — the, come to France, 43.
 — in England under Edward the Confessor, 44.
 — the coming of the, 82.
 — houses in Ireland, 242-244.
 Norsemen, the, 27, 32, 43. *See also* Danes.
 North, Lord, 344, 350.
 Northampton, peace of, 136, 138.
 Northamptonshire, 233.
 Northmen. *See* Normans.
 North Sea outrage, the, 411.
 Northumberland, Jacobite rising in, 324.
 — Henry Percy, earl of, 162.
 — John Dudley, duke of, 216, 217.
 Northumbria, kingdom of, 9, 16, 17, 21, 31.
 — overlordship of, 25-27.
 — Oswald, king of, 22.
 — Edwin, king of, 25.
 — conquered by the Danes, 28.
 — earldom of, 37, 41, 114.
 — and Morcar, earl of, 45, 46.
 — Tostig, earl of, 45.
 Norway, 27, 40.
 — Margaret of. *See* Margaret.
 Norwich, 319.
 Nuns, 23.
 OATES, Titus, 294, 295.
 O'Connell, Daniel, 371, 381, 382, 388, 396.
 O'Donnells, the (Irish family), 242-244.
 Offa the Mighty, king of Mercia, 26, 27.
 Offa's Dyke, 26, 31.
 Olse, the river, 427.
 O'Neills, the (Irish family), 242-244.
 Orange River Free State, the (now Orange River Colony), 404, 409.
 — Princess of, 201. *See* Mary.
 — William I., Prince of, 234.
 — William III., Prince of, 234, 294, 301, 302. *See* William III., king.
 Ordinance, the self-denying, 274.
 Organs, 38.
 Orinoco, river, 259.
 Orleans, 170, 171.
 Ormoud, earl of, 242.
 Oswald, king of Northumbria, 22.
 Other House, the, 282.
 Oudenarde, battle of, 313. *See* Battle.
 Overlordship, the earliest English, 19.
 — the Northumbrian, 25, 27.
 — the Mercian, 25-27.
 — the West Saxon, 27-34.
 — of the English King, 36.
 — English over Scotland, 115, 116.
 Oxford, 153, 154, 191, 222, 272, 300, 313, 336, 386.
 — University of, 132, 198.
 — the Provisions of. *See* Provisions.
 Oxfordshire, 272.
 PACIFIC, the, 238, 337, 423.
 Palaeolithic, or Old Stone Age, 2.
 Palatine County of Cheshire, 213.
 Pale, the English (Ireland), 242.
 Palestine, 87-89, 427, 428.
 Palisades of castles, 57.
 Palmerston, Lord, 388, 390-392.
 Panama, Isthmus of, 238.
 Pandulf, envoy of Pope Innocent III., 96.
 Papists. *See* Roman Catholics.
 Paris, 43, 136, 147, 170, 172, 421, 427, 430.
 — University of, 122.
 Parliament, the Mad, 104.
 — the, of 1265-106.
 — Scots to have representatives in English, 119.
 — the First Complete or Model (1295), 120, 121.
 — and Edward III., 142, 149.
 — the Good, 144.

- Parliament and Richard II., 156.
 — deposes Richard, 157.
 — rights of, 159.
 — and Henry IV., 160, 161.
 — and Henry VI., 172, 173.
 — and Edward IV., 180.
 — and Henry VII., 194.
 — Henry VIII. and, 205.
 — the, and Henry VIII., 213.
 — and Mary Tudor, 220.
 — and Elizabeth, 226.
 — and the Stewarts, 254.
 — and James I., 254, 256, 258.
 — the Addled, 256.
 — and Charles I., 261-263.
 — Charles I.'s third, 264.
 — and Charles I., 265.
 — the Short, 268.
 — the Long, 268-271, 284, 285, 355, 357.
 — and Charles I. at war, 271-276.
 — Long, Rump of, 278, 280, 281.
 — Cromwell and reconstruction of, 281, 282.
 — Barchones', 281.
 — Free, 284.
 — and religious toleration, 289.
 — and Daily, 294.
 — and James II., 298, 300, 301.
 — and William III., 304-307.
 — and Queen Anne, 315.
 — and Marlborough, 312.
 — Scottish and English United, 318.
 — Duration of, 325, 417.
 — and Walpole, 330.
 — and the elder Pitt, 335.
 — British and American taxation, 345, 347.
 — reform of, 352, 358, 374-377, 392, 403, 417, 431, 432. *See also* Reform, Parliamentary.
 — and Ireland, 401, 433.
 — Grattan's, 359.
 — Irish, 359, 360, 391, 417, 418, 432.
 — Act, the, 417.
 Parliaments, origin of, 104.
 Parnell, Charles Stewart, 396, 401.
 Parr, Catharine, sixth wife of Henry VIII., 196, 212.
 Petty Government, 305, 324.
 Patay, battle of, 171. *See* Battle.
 Patches, 320, 321.
 Patrick, St., 10.
 Paulinus, archbishop of York, 21.
 Peace of Ryswick, 309.
 — of Utrecht, 316, 325, 326.
 — *See also* Treaty.
 Peasantry, Irish, 401.
 Peasants' Revolt, the, 150-153.
 Peel, Sir Robert, 369, 370, 382-385, 395, 411.
 Peellites, the, 386, 388, 391, 392.
 Pelham, Thomas, duke of Newcastle, 334-336, 340, 344. *See* Newcastle.
 — Henry, 334, 335.
 Pelican, the (ship), 238.
 Pembroke, William Marshall, earl of. *See* Pembroke.
 Penda, king of the Mercians, 21, 22, 25.
 Peninsular War, the, 364.
 Penn, William, 290.
 Pennines, the, 17.
 Pennsylvania, 290.
 People's Charter, the, 382.
 Percy, House of, 162, 179.
 — Henry, earl of Northumberland. *See* Northumberland.
 — Henry Hotspur, 162.
 Perpendicular Style. *See* Architecture.
 Persian Gulf, the, 423.
 Perth, 118, 325.
 Petition of Right, the, 264.
 Philip II., Augustus, king of France, 88, 89, 92, 93, 96, 99.
 — VI. of Valois, king of France, 140.
 — II., king of Spain, husband of Mary I., 220, 228, 231, 235, 238-240, 242, 243, 383.
 — V., king of Spain, grandson of Louis XIV., 310, 312-316.
 — duke of Burgundy. *See* Burgundy.
 Philiphaugh, battle of, 274. *See* Battle.
 Philippa of Hainault, queen of Edward III., 138.
 Philosophy, teaching of, 132.
 Pictland, 17.
 Picts, the, or Caledonians, 9, 12, 17.
 Pilgrimage to tomb of Edward the Confessor, 45.
 — Cnut's, to Rome, 41.
 — of Grace, the, 210.
 Pilgrimages, 87, 88.
 Pilgrim Fathers, the, 253.
Pilgrim's Progress, Bunyan's, 280.
 Pillows, 245.
 Pinkie, battle of, 214, 332. *See* Battle.
 Pitt, William the Elder, earl of Chatham, 335, 336, 340, 341, 344. *See also* Chatham, earl of.
 — the Younger, 350-352, 358-360, 362-364, 369, 372, 376.
 Pointed Style. *See* Architecture.
 Poitiers, battle of, 145, 146. *See* Battle.
 Poland, 430.
 Police, reform of the, 30.
 Poll-tax, 152.
 Pontefract, 157. *See* Castle.
 Poor, the Friars and the, 131.
 — priests, Wycliffe's, 154.
 — growth of number of, in eighteenth century, 354.
 — law, the new (1834), 377.
 Pope, the, 41, 63.
 — Gregory the Great, 20.
 — the, and Becket, 81.
 — the, John's quarrel with, 94-96.
 — Henry III. and the, 103.
 — Wycliffe and the, 153, 154.
 — the, and Henry VIII., 208.
 — Mary wishes to restore power of, 220.
 — power of the, 226.
 — opposes Elizabeth, 231.
 — Laud and power of the, 266.
 Popish Plot, the, 294.
 Population, growth of, in Stewart period, 318.
 — in eighteenth century, 354.
 Portugal, 200.
 Potato, the, 238, 384.
 — introduction of the, 238.
 Poundage, 264, 265.
 Power-loom, the, 353.
 Prayer-book, the, 270, 288.
 — the First of Edward VI., 216.
 — Edward VI.'s Second, 216, 226, 227.

- Prayer-book, the Scottish, 267.
 — Cromwell and the, 283.
 — the, and English Church, 228.
 Presbyterianism in Scotland, 270, 288, 300, 308, 318.
 Presbyterians, 229, 267, 270, 272, 276, 277, 282, 289, 290.
 Presbyters, 229.
 Preston, Jacobite rebels reach, 324.
 Prestonpans, battle of, 232. *See* Battle.
 Pretender, the Old, 323. *See* James.
 — the Young. *See* Charles Edward.
 Pretoria, 409.
 Prime Minister, office of, 329, 330.
 Prince of Wales, custom of creating king's son, 113.
 — *See* Llywelyn.
 — Glendower attempts to become, 162.
 — Henry, afterwards Henry V. *See* Henry V.
 Principality of Wales, 112, 113.
 Printing, invention of, 187.
 Priors of cathedral chapters, 92.
 Prose-writing, 322.
 Protection, 385, 386, 388.
 Protectionists, 386. *See* Protection.
 Protectorate of Richard, duke of York, 174.
 — the, of the Cromwells, 281-285.
 Protestants, 204, 211.
 — and Edward VI., 217.
 — and Queen Mary, 218, 221, 222.
 — the, and Elizabeth, 226, 227.
 — in the Netherlands, 234, 235.
 — in Ireland, the, 243, 266, 307, 350, 360, 417.
 — loyal to Elizabeth, 240.
 — and James I., 259.
 — German, and Thirty Years' War, 200.
 Provence, Eleanor of. *See* Eleanor.
 Provisions of Oxford, the, 104.
 Prussia, 331, 339, 340, 395, 420. *See* also Germany.
 — rise of, 331.
 — at war with France, 355.
 — against Napoleon, 366, 367.
 Puritans, the, 227, 228, 253, 264, 265, 269, 271-285, 385.
 — the, and James I., 255.
 — and English Church, 289.
 — and Charles II.'s church settlement, 289.
 — recognition of, by Cromwell, 282, 283.
 — and the stage, the, 319.
 — and dress, the, 119, 320.
 Plague, the Great, 291.
 Plantagenet, House of, 73, 119.
 Plantagenets, the greatest of the, 111.
Planta genista, 73.
 Plantation of Ulster, 252.
 Plassey, battle of, 341.
 Plate armour, 186.
 Plays, Elizabethan, 247.
 Plot, the Popish, 294, 295.
 — the Rye House, 296.
 Plymouth, 241.
 — New. *See* New Plymouth.
 Pym, John, 268, 270.
 Pyrenees, the, 74, 146.
 — Wellington crosses the, 366.
 QUAKERS, the, 290.
 Quebec conquered, 341.
 RAILWAYS, 372, 373, 400, 432.
 Raleigh, Sir Walter, 233, 238, 239, 252, 259, 260.
 Ramillies, battle of, 313. *See* Battle.
 Ravenspur, 156.
 Reading, 187.
 Rebellion, the Great, 271-276.
 — Irish, of 1798..359.
 — Jacobite, of 1715..324; of 1745..331-334.
 Recusants, popish, 228.
 Red Indians, 337, 315.
 — Sea, the, 399.
 Rede (council), 38.
 Reform, Parliamentary, 352, 374-377, 380, 417, 431.
 — Bill (1832), 358, 374-377, 382, 386.
 — the second (1867), 380, 392.
 — the third (1885), 380, 401, 403.
 — the fourth (1918), 431-432.
 Reformation, the, 82, 131, 201, 235.
 — the, continued under Edward VI., 215, 216.
 — arrested under Mary, 218, 219.
 — the, in Scotland, 228-232.
 Regular army, the, 287. *See* Army.
 Reign of Terror, the, 355, 356, 358.
 Reims, 171.
 Religion, Jewish, 125.
 — Christian. *See* Church.
 — revival of, 37, 38.
 — the friars and the teaching of, 131.
 Remonstrance, the Grand, 270.
 Renaissance, the, 187.
 Repeal of the corn laws, the, 386, 388.
 — of the Union, 381, 382.
 Repealers, 382, 386, 388.
 Representation, Parliamentary, 106, 107, 392, 393.
 — of Scotland and Ireland, 281.
 — in moots, 55.
 Republic, the French, 355, 395.
 Restoration of Charles II., the, 284-286, 297, 319, 320-322.
 — rule of, in Ireland, 288.
 — period, characteristics of the, 320-322.
 — period, dress during, 320, 321.
 Revival of letters. *See* Renaissance.
 Revolution, the French, 354, 359, 369.
 — French, attitude of England to, 358.
 — war against French, 350-358.
 — the Industrial, 353, 354.
 — of 1688, the, 303, 309, 324, 325.
 — the, in Ireland, 307, 308.
 Rhine, the, 340, 430.
 Ribblesdale, 176.
 Richard I., the Lion Heart, 84-90, 91, 92.
 — II., 150-159, 164.
 — III., 181-183, 189, 194.
 — duke of Gloucester. *See* Gloucester and Richard III.
 — duke of York. *See* York.
 — earl of Warwick. *See* Warwick.
 Richmond, Henry Tudor, earl of, 183. *See* Henry VII.
 Riddles, 52.
 Ridley, John, bishop of London, 217, 222.
 Right, Petition of. *See* Petition.

- Rights, Bill of, 303.
 — Declaration of, 302, 303.
 Riots, Reform Bill 376.
 Ripon, 209.
 Roads, 353.
 — in Elizabeth's time, 247.
 — Roman 10, 11, 20.
 Robert I., king of Scots. *See* Bruce, Robert.
 — II. of Scotland, 193.
 — duke of Normandy, son of William I., 64, 65, 68, 71, 88.
 Roberts, Lord, 404, 405, 407, 409.
 Rochdale, 384.
 Rochester, John Fisher, bishop of. *See* Fisher.
 — 57. *See* Castle.
 Rocket, the (engine), 372.
 Rodney, Admiral, 350.
 Roman Catholic, Charles II. becomes a, 297.
 — Catholics, the 204, 371. *See also* Catholic.
 — in England, 230.
 — in north of England, 231-233.
 — in Lancashire, 332.
 — and Test Act, 294.
 — German, and the Thirty Years' War, 200.
 — Cromwell and, 283.
 — on Cabal, 293.
 — persecution of, 295.
 — and James II., 208.
 — in Ireland, 243, 260, 307, 331, 359, 360, 371, 393.
 Romans, the, 5-12, 19.
 Rome, 5, 20, 94, 103.
 — bishop of, 20. *See* Pope.
 — Chut's pilgrimage to, 41.
 — papal court of, 91.
 Root and Branch Bill, 270.
 Rosebery, Lord, 402.
 Roses, wars of the, 174. *See* Wars.
 Rotten boroughs, 375-377.
 Rouen, 43, 166, 172.
 — captured by Henry V., 166.
 Roundheads, the, 271.
 Royal standard, the, 209.
 — supremacy, the, 211.
 Royalists, the, 271-286.
 — Irish, 279.
 Rumania, 422, 423.
 Ruup, the, 277, 278, 280, 281, 283-285.
 Runnymede, 97.
 Rupert, Prince, 272.
 Russell, Lord, 297.
 — Lord John, 386-388, 392.
 Russia, 371, 390, 395, 396, 413.
 — joins England against Napoleon, 360, 361.
 — Napoleon at war with, 366.
 — growth of, 388, 389.
 — war between England and, 389, 390.
 — at war with the Turks, 307, 308.
 — at war with Japan, 411.
 — her Dual Alliance with France, 419.
 — her protection of Serbia and the Slavs, 429.
 — her war with France against Germany, 420, 421, 422.
 — Revolution in, 422, 427.
 — Bolshevik rule in, 422.
 Rutland, 375.
 Rye House Plot, the, 296, 309.
 SAINT ALBANS, battle of. *See* Battle.
 — Brice's day, massacre of, 39.
 — Charles, river, 341.
 — George's Cross, 209.
 — Channel, 270.
 — Helena, 367.
 — John, 315. *See* Bolingbroke.
 — Lawrence, river, 337, 341.
 — Paul's Cathedral, 291, 292. *See* Cathedral.
 — Stephen, church of, at Caen, 63.
 — Vincent, battle of, 356.
 Saints, English, 102.
 Saladin, 88, 89.
 Salle law, 141.
 Salisbury Plain, 3.
 — earl of, 130.
 — earl of, Robert Cecil, James I.'s minister, 256.
 — marquis of, Robert Cecil, Edward VII.'s minister, 244, 250, 402, 407, 410.
 Salonica, 423.
 Sancroft, Archbishop, 301.
 Saratoga, British surrender at, 348.
 Saxons, the, 14-16.
 — the East, 16.
 — the Middle, 16.
 — the South, 16.
 — the West, 16, 17, 69, 79.
 — overlordship of the, 27.
 — Godwin, earl of, 44, 45.
 — Harold, earl of, and king of England, 44-49, 56, 57.
 Saxons, the West, and Harold, 48.
 Scholars, poor, and the universities, 132.
 School Boards, 395.
 Schools, Alfred the Great's, 33.
 Science in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, 131.
 — study of natural, 322.
 — in Victorian Age, 408.
 Scone, 118, 119.
 Scotland, 13, 17, 24, 25, 36, 82, 176, 241.
 — and Henry I., 82.
 — and Henry II., 82, 83.
 — and Edward I., 114-120.
 — and Edward II., 133-136.
 — and Perkin Warbeck, 192.
 — and Henry VII., 193, 194.
 — and Henry VIII., 200, 212.
 — and Edward VI., 214, 215.
 — and the Reformation, 228-230.
 — under James VI. (I. of England), 250, 251.
 — and Charles I., 267, 268.
 — Church of, 270.
 — Presbyterianism in, 277.
 — at war with England, 277-279.
 — Parliamentary representation of, in Cromwell's Parliaments, 281.
 — and Monk, 284.
 — independent Parliament in, 288.
 — and James VII. (II. of England), 300.
 — and the Jacobites, 321, 325.
 — the Revolution in, 308.
 — union between England and, 316-318.
 — discontent in, 382.
 — foundation of Free Church of, 386.

- Scots, the, 12, 13. *See also* Irish.
 Scutage, 78.
 Sebastopol, siege of, 390.
 Second Civil War, the, 277. *See* War.
 Security, Act of, 317.
 Sedgemoor, 209. *See also* Battle.
 Seine, the, 43.
 Self-denying ordinance, the, 274.
 Seminaries, 232.
 Seminary priests, 232.
 Separatists, the, 227, 253, 289. *See also* Dissenters.
 Sepoys, 337, 390, 391.
 Septennial Act, the, 325.
 Sepulchre, the Holy, 88.
 Serbia, 420, 423, 428-429.
 Serfs. *See* Villeins.
 Settlement, Act of, 305, 318.
 Seven Years' War, the, 336-341, 344, 345, 348.
 Severn, the, 16, 17, 26, 180.
 Seymour, Edward, duke of Somerset. *See* Somerset.
 — Jane, third wife of Henry VIII., 196, 211.
 Shaftesbury, Anthony Ashley Cooper, earl of, 292, 295, 298.
 Shakespeare, William, 247.
 Shannon, the, 279.
 Sheriffmuir, battle of, 325. *See* Battle.
 Shield money or scutage. *See* Scutage.
 Ship, the White, 70.
 — building, 241.
 — merchant, 319.
 — money, 265, 268.
 — steam-, 372.
 Ships, Alfred the Great's, 32.
 — of war, Henry VIII.'s, 209, 210.
 — English, at end of Elizabeth's reign, 244.
 Shire, knights of. *See* Knights.
 — representation of the, 106.
 Shire-moot, the, 55, 77. *See also* Moot.
 Shires, the, 55, 112.
 Shopkeepers, 377.
 Shrewsbury, battle of, 162. *See* Battle.
 Shrine of Edward the Confessor, 46.
 — St. Thomas Becket's, 81.
 Sidney, Algernon, 297.
 — Sir Philip, 235.
 Siege of Londonderry, 307.
 — Sebastopol, 390.
 Simnell, Lambert, 191, 192.
 Simon de Montfort. *See* Montfort.
 Sinn Féin, 432-433.
 Slave-trade, 236.
 — abolition of the, 362-364.
 Slavery, abolition of, 362-364, 377, 378.
 Slaves, 53, 151.
 — negro, 252, 253, 386.
 Slavs, the Southern, 420, 429, 430.
 Sluys, battle of, 143. *See* Battle.
 Snowdon, 92, 111, 112.
 Soldier, the, in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, 182. *See* Army.
 Solemn League and Covenant, the, 272.
 Solway, the, 9.
 Somerset, 28, 36, 268.
 — Edward, duke of, Protector, 214-216.
 — House, 216.
 Somme, the river, 427.
 Sonnets, Sidney's, 235.
 Sophia, Electress of Hanover, 305, 318.
 — Dorothea of Celle, wife of George I., 323.
 South Africa, 404, 405, 403, 413, 432.
 — Sea Bubble, 326.
 — Sea Company, 326.
 Spain in alliance with England, 199.
 — and Queen Mary, 219.
 — Philip of. *See* Philip II.
 — possessions of, in America, 236, 238, 239.
 — and England at end of Elizabeth's reign, 244.
 — and James I., 258-260.
 — and Charles I. at enmity, 261-263.
 — Louis XIV. at war with, 234.
 — and William III. against Louis XIV., 309.
 — and Louis XIV., 310.
 — Marlborough and, 313, 314.
 — colonies of, 316.
 — Philip V. recognised as king of, 316.
 — and Austrian succession, 331.
 — Walpole at war with, 330, 331.
 — and the American war, 348.
 — Gibraltar besieged by, 350.
 — at war with England, 356.
 — Nelson against, 361, 362.
 — Wellington in, 364-366.
 — Joseph Bonaparte, king of, 364, 365.
 Speaker, the, of the House of Commons, 264.
 Spearmen, 135.
 Spenser, Edmund, 247.
 Spinning-jenny, the, 353.
 Spurs, battle of the, 200. *See* Battle.
 Stadtholder, office of, 294.
 Stage-coaches, 321.
 Staines, 97.
 Stamford, 244.
 — Bridge, battle of, 47. *See* Battle.
 Stamp Act, the, 345-347.
 Star Chamber, Court of, 195, 266, 267, 268.
 Steam-engine, the, 353, 372.
 — ships, 373, 406.
 'Steenie,' 257.
 Stephen, count of Boulogne, king of England, 70, 71, 74, 75.
 Stephenson, George, 372.
 Steward, lord's, 123.
 Stewart, House of, 193.
 — James IV., 193.
 — period, the characteristics of, 318-320.
 — end of House of, 334.
 Stewarts, the, 250, 291, 308, 309, 325.
 — the, and Parliament, 254.
 Stirling, 134, 135.
 Stockton, 372.
 Stone Age, the old, 2.
 — the new, 3.
 Stonehenge, 3.
 Strafford, Sir Thomas Wentworth, earl of, 267-269, 279, 307.
 Strathclyde, 114.
 — Welsh, 16. *See also* Cumberland.
 Submarines, 423-424, 134.
 Sudan, the, 399-401, 405, 406.
 — reconquest of the, 403.
 Suez Canal, the, 399.
 Suffolk, 16.

- Sugar, 252, 403.
 Sultan, Saladin. *See* Saladin.
 — of Turkey, 397, 398.
 Suppression of the monasteries, 207-209.
 Supremacy, the Royal, 205-208.
 — Act of. *See* Acts.
 Surcoats, the knight's, 130.
 Suspending power, the, 300, 303.
 Suspensory Act (1914), the, 418.
 Sussex, kingdom of, 16.
 —, 48, 55, 106.
 Sweegen, king of Denmark, 39.
 Sydney, 403.
 Syria, 88, 89, 428.

 TALavera, battle of, 305. *See* Battle.
 Talents, ministry of all the, 362-364.
 Tapestry, the Bayeux. *See* Bayeux.
 Tariff Reform, 411, 412, 414.
 Tarsus, Theodore of, archbishop of Canterbury, 22.
 Tattershall, 185. *See* Castle.
 Taxation, 264.
 — William I. and, 63.
 — now, 98.
 — Henry III.'s, 103.
 — Richard II. and, 156.
 — American, 345, 347.
 — in France, 351.
 Tea, 319.
 — duty on, 345.
 Telegraph, the, 433.
 Telephone, the, 433.
 Terror, the Reign of, 355, 376, 358.
 Test Act, the, 294, 300. *See* Acts.
 — — repeal of, 371.
 Tewkesbury, battle of. *See* Battle.
 Thames, the, 16, 97.
 — the upper, 31.
 Theatre, the, 319.
 Thegn, 53, 54.
 Theodore of Tarsus, archbishop of Canterbury, 22, 127, 130.
 Theology, teaching of, 132.
 Theows, the, 53. *See also* Slaves.
 Thirty Years' War, the, 266. *See* War.
 Thirty-nine Articles, the. *See* Articles.
 Thomas Becket, St., archbishop of Canterbury, 79-83, 127, 130.
 Thomas, duke of Gloucester. *See* Gloucester.
 Thor, 20.
 Thorough, system of, 267.
 Tobacco, 252.
 — introduction of, 238.
 Toleration Act, 304.
 — religious, 289.
 Tomb, William I.'s, 62.
 — II.'s, 67.
 — Edward I.'s, 120, 137.
 — II.'s, 137.
 'Ton' (town), 29.
 Tonnage and poundage, 261, 265.
 Torbay, 301.
 Tories, the, 296, 297, 301, 305, 314, 361, 392.
 — and James II., 298.
 — in power, 305, 315, 341.
 — and Jacobites, 310.
 — and War of Spanish Succession, the, 314, 315.
 — the, and George I., 323, 324.
 Tories against French Revolution, 358.
 — and Whigs unite, 362, 364.
 — and George IV., 368, 369.
 — and Parliamentary reform, the, 369.
 — William IV. and the, 376.
 — and Peel, 382.
 Torpedoes, 424.
 Tory, Peel drops name of, 382.
 Tostig, earl of the Northumbrians, 45, 47.
 Tournai, 192.
 Tower, Norman, the, 59.
 — the round replaces the square, 125.
 — the square, 125.
 Tower of London, the, 57, 152, 176, 180, 181, 192, 206, 259.
 — Hill, 260.
 Town Council, 376, 377.
 Towns, English, 51, 98.
 — the, in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, 124, 125.
 — growth of, in fifteenth century, 184.
 — — manufacturing, 354, 355.
 Townships, 55.
 Towton, battle of, 176, 177. *See* Battle.
 Trade, 98.
 — in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, 124, 125.
 — foreign, 124, 125.
 — wool, in fifteenth century, 184.
 — foreign, of England, 235, 236.
 — under Elizabeth, 241.
 — English, with India and the Far East, 253, 354.
 — — 290, 291.
 — rivalry between Dutch and English, 293, 294.
 — since Revolution, 325, 326.
 — free, between Scotland and England, 318.
 — in Stewart period, 319.
 — growth of, under George II., 334.
 — with India, 337.
 — in eighteenth century, 353, 354.
 — in George IV.'s time, 370.
 — great growth of sea and land, under George IV., 373.
 — free, 302, 403.
 — growth of, under Victoria, 406-408.
 Trades-unions, 435.
 Trafalgar, battle of, 361-363. *See* Battle.
 Translation of the Bible into English, 210.
 Transvaal, the, 404, 409.
 Travel in Elizabeth's time, 246.
 — during the Restoration, 321.
 — increased ease of, 372, 373.
 — in Victorian age, 406.
 Treaty of Amiens, 357, 358.
 — of Calais, 146, 147.
 — of Chippenham, 28.
 — of Dover, secret, 292, 293.
 — of Northampton, 136, 138.
 — of Ryswick, 309.
 — of Troyes, 167.
 — of Utrecht, 316, 325, 326.
 — of Wedmore, 28.
 Trent, the, 16.
 Triple Alliance of Germany, Austria, and Italy, 418, 419.
 Trial by battle, 78.
 — by jury, 77.
 Troyes, treaty of. *See* Treaty.

- Tudor period, the characteristics of, 310.
 — Henry, earl of Richmond. *See* Richmond.
 — Mary. *See* Mary.
 Tudors, the, 105, 251, 260.
 Turks, the, 87, 88, 132, 370, 388, 389, 396-398, 419, 420, 422, 423, 425, 427, 428, 431.
 Tweed, the, 114.
 Tyler, Wat, 152, 173.
 Tyne, the, 6.
 Tyneside, 372.
 Type, movable, 187.
- ULSTER, 242, 252, 417, 418.
 Union, the, between England and Scotland, 316-319, 332, 337.
 Union, Act of, with Ireland, 260.
 Unionists, 410-412, 432.
 — Liberal, 402.
 United Irishmen, the, 359.
 United States of America, the, 350, 421, 425, 427, 428, 429, 435.
 Universities, the, 131, 132.
 Usury, 125. *See also* Money-lenders.
 Utrecht, treaty of, 316, 325, 326. *See* Treaty.
- VALOIS, Philip VI. of. *See* Philip VI.
 Vassal, the, 60.
 Versailles, treaty of (1910), 430.
 Veto Resolutions, the, 411.
 Victoria, the Princess, 307, 374, 375.
 — Queen, 379-405, 407, 433-436.
 — (Australia), 403.
 Victorian Age, characteristics of the, 433-436.
 Victory, the (ship), 362.
 Villeins, 123, 150-153.
 Villiers, George. *See* Buckingham.
 Vinegar Hill, battle of, 350. *See* Battle.
 Virginia, 234, 252, 253, 290.
 Visor, the (of a helmet), 130.
 Vittoria, battle of, 366. *See* Battle.
 Volunteers, the, 389.
 — Ulster and Irish National, 417-418.
- WAGES, 152, 386, 408.
 Wakefield, battle of, 176. *See* Battle.
 Wales, 13, 17, 24, 25, 96.
 — March of. *See* March.
 — Normans in, 82, 83.
 — Llywelyn, Prince of. *See* Llywelyn.
 — and Edward I., 113, 114, 117, 120.
 — and Edward II., 137.
 — and Henry IV., 162.
 — and Henry VII., 183.
 — and Henry VIII., 213.
 — Parliamentary representation of, 213, 281.
 — Church in, 417.
 Wallace, Sir William, 118, 119, 135.
 Walpole, Sir Robert, 320, 328, 329, 330, 331, 334, 335.
 Wapentake, the, 55.
 War, John's, with his barons, 98.
 — the barons', 100, 110, 111.
 — the Hundred Years', 140-146, 164-167, 309.
 — of the Roses, 174, 192, 194, 199, 242.
 — the Thirty Years', 260.
- War, the second Civil, 267.
 — the bishops', 268.
 — the great Civil, 271-270, 290, 318.
 — the Civil, 280, 318.
 — of the Spanish Succession, 312-310.
 — of Austrian Succession, 330, 331.
 — with Spain, Walpole at, 330, 336.
 — the Seven Years', 336-341, 344, 345, 348.
 — American, 352, 355.
 — between England and Holland, 356.
 — Spain, 356.
 — France, 355-358.
 — Austria and Prussia against France, 355.
 — American, 358, 359.
 — between England and Napoleon, 300-362.
 — the Crimean, 389-391, 396.
 — Franco-German, 395.
 — the Great (1914-1919), 118-431.
- Warbeck, Perkin, 101, 102.
 Warwick, Richard Neville, earl of, the king-maker, 178-180.
 — Richard Beauchamp, earl of, 186.
 — Richard, earl of, son of George of Clarence, 190, 191.
 — John Dudley, earl of, 216. *See* Northumberland.
 Warwickshire, 272.
 Waterloo, battle of, 367-370.
 Watling Street, 29.
 Wealth, growth of, 335.
 Wedmore, treaty of, 28.
 Wellesley, Sir Arthur, 361-367. *See* Wellington, duke of.
 Wellington, Arthur Wellesley, duke of, 361-367, 371, 376, 377.
 Welsh, the, 1, 13, 15, 16, 17, 19, 20, 21, 22, 26, 28, 31, 36, 82. *See also* Wales.
 — the Strathclyde, 16, 111.
 Wentworth, Sir Thomas, 267. *See* Strafford.
 Wergild, 52.
 Wesley, John, 335, 336.
 Wessex, kingdom of, 16, 25, 27, 28-31.
 — earldom of, 41, 51, 54.
 — earldom of, under Godwin, 44, 45.
 — Harold, 44, 45.
 West Indies, the, 350, 377, 403.
 Westminster, 49, 277, 318, 378.
 — Abbey, 45, 46, 49, 51, 63, 118, 187.
 — rebuilding by Henry III., 102, 120.
 — King's Court at, 124.
 Wexford, 350.
 Whigs, the, 296, 297, 301, 305, 310, 335, 376.
 — and war of Spanish Succession, 315; and foreign politics, 315.
 — and George I., 323.
 — George III.'s hatred of the, 343, 344.
 — gives office to, 350.
 — the, defied by younger Pitt, 352.
 — against French Revolution, 358.
 — unite with Tories, 362-364.
 — the, and Parliamentary reform, 369.
 — and reform, 378, 379.
 — and Ireland, 381, 382.
 — the, and Peel, 382.
 — the, and protection, 385.
 — the, adopt name of Liberal, 386.
 — the, 392.

- White Rose of England, the, 132.
 Whitehall Palace, 277.
 Wiers, 320.
 William, duke of the Normans, afterwards King William I., the Conqueror of England, 43, 47-50, 56-65, 67-69, 74, 82.
 William II., Rufus, King, 64, 65-68, 70, 87, 91, 95.
 — III., English king and stadtholder, 310, 311, 325, 359.
 — IV., 371, 374-378.
 — son of Henry I., 70.
 — I., Prince of Orange. *See* Orange.
 — III., Prince of Orange, 301, 303-310. *See* Orange, and William III.
 — I., king of Prussia, German emperor, 325.
 — II., king of Prussia, German emperor, 420, 423, 430.
 Wilson, Woodrow, President of the United States, 424, 429, 430.
 Wiltshire, 45.
 Winchester, 51, 67, 68, 100.
 Windows, 51.
 — in Elizabeth's time, 245.
 Windsor, 97.
 — House of, 415.
 Witan, the, 54.
 Witenagemot, the, 54, 104.
 Woden, 20.
 Wolfe, General, 341.
 Wolsey, Thomas, cardinal and archbishop of York, 198, 199, 202-204, 208, 211.
 Woodstock, 313.
 Woodville. *See* Elizabeth.
 Wool, export of, 140.
 — trade in, 184.
 — growing, 403.
 Worcester, Hugh Latimer, bishop of, 217.
 — battle of, 279. *See* battle.
 Wren, Sir Christopher, 201.
 Wyatt, Sir Thomas, 221.
 Wycliffe, John, 153-155, 160.
 Wye, the, 26.
 YORK, 47, 176.
 — Paulinus, first archbishop of, 21.
 — Wolsey, archbishop of, 198.
 — House of, 183, 189, 190, 192, 193.
 — Edward, earl of March, becomes duke of, afterwards Edward IV. *See* Edward IV.
 — Elizabeth of. *See* Elizabeth.
 — James, duke of, 200, 204, 205, 208. *See also* James II.
 — Richard, duke of, protector for Henry VI., 174. *See* Richard.
 — Richard, duke of, son of Edward IV., 181, 192. *See* Richard.
 Yorkshire, 57, 125, 157, 203, 209, 210, 267, 274, 374.
 Young Turks, the, 119.

